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UNIVERSAL

GEOGRAPHY,

OR

A DESCRIPTION

OF

ALL THE PARTS OF THE WORLD,

ON A NEW PLAN,

ACCORDING TO THE GREAT NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE GLOBE:

ACCOMPANIED WITH

ANALYTICAL, SYNOPTICAL, AND ELEMENTARY TABLES.

BY M. MALTE-BRUN.

IMPROVED BY THE ADDITION OF THE MOST RECENT INFORMATION DERIVED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.

VOL. VI.

CONTAINING THE DESCRIPTION OF EUROPE.

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SYSTEM

OF

UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK XCIV.

EUROPE.—INTRODUCTION.

Its Physical Geography.—Seas, Lakes, Rivers, and Mountains.

EUROPE is inconsiderable in comparison of Asia, America or the compact surface of Africa. A mere adjunct of the immense Asiatic continent, the whole peninsula could hardly contain a basin large enough for the Nile, the Kiang or the Amazons.[a] Its loftiest mountains cannot be compared in height or in extent to the Andes or Himalahs. If all its downs and uncultivated lands were added to the sandy plains of Africa, the augmentation might be wholly imperceptible. The European archipelagos are much inferior to the vast labyrinths in other regions of the earth. The productions of the animal, the vegetable and mineral kingdoms, confined to the same continent are few and insignificant. Its mines do not abound in gold, the diamond is not found among its minerals. There are not more than fifteen or twenty species of quadrupeds that belong exclusively to Europe, and these are not of the most useful kind. Some animals, as the horse, the ox, the sheep and

[a] M. Malte-Brun means by the basin of a river, all the countries over which its branches extend.

BOOK XCIV.

the dog have been greatly improved by the care and industry of man; but the most valuable natural productions have been imported from other quarters of the world. The silkworm was brought from India, fine wool from Mauritania, the peach from Persia, the orange from China, and the potato from America. If we are rich, our wealth has been derived from the produce or spoils of other countries.

Such is the power of the human mind that our barren, rugged and wild region, which nature had only covered with forests or enriched with iron, has after a lapse of 4000 years, been completely changed by its inhabitants. Their civilization, it is true, has been more than once interrupted, but it has been found impracticable to extinguish it or set limits to its progress. We attempt in vain to separate the gifts of nature from the discoveries of art; climate is modified by cultivation; navigation has put within our reach the produce of every zone. Europe, in which the beaver built in security its habitation on the banks of solitary rivers, has become the seat of powerful empires; its fields yield rich harvests; its cities are adorned with palaces; our small peninsula extends its sway over the rest of the earth; it is the lawgiver of the world; its inhabitants are spread over every country; a whole continent has been peopled by its colonists. The barbarism of Africa, its deserts and burning sun cannot much longer obstruct the progress of our travellers. European customs and institutions have been transplanted to Oceanica; European armies have almost subdued the continent of Asia, British India and Asiatic Russia must ere long be coterminous; the immense but feeble empire of the Chinese may resist the arms, but not the influence of Europe. The ocean is the exclusive patrimony of Europeans or their colonists. The inhabitants of the most polished nations in other parts of the earth seldom venture beyond their coasts; our mariners sail fearlessly to the most distant seas.

We shall endeavour to describe this part of the earth differently from others less changed by the genius of their inhabitants; the progress of improvement is naturally associated with historical recollections; but it is necessary at the outset to make some observations on its physical geography.

Limits of Europe.

The limits of Europe have been considered in a former part of this work; we have shown that the chain of the Ural mountains, the river of the same name, the Caspian Sea and the lowest level of the isthmus between it and the sea of Azof, (a level indicated by the course of the Manytch, and the Kuma,) are the boundaries between Europe and Asia in the part in which they are contiguous. That frontier terminates at the Tanais or Don, which for a short space separates the two continents. The remaining limits are more easily determined; they are the sea of Azof, the Black Sea, the Bosphorus, the Propontis and the Hellespont. The line is taken across the Archipelago; Tenedos, Mitylene, Chio, Samos, Nicaria, Cos and Rhodes belong to Asia; Naxos, Stampalia and Scarponto to Europe. The Mediterranean divides Africa and Europe; but it is not ascertained whether Malta, Gozo, Comino, Lampedosa and Linosa are African or European islands. The question, in as much as it is connected with the colonial administration of these settlements, has been agitated in the British parliament, and the geographical arguments on both sides appear equally plausible.

It has been seen that the Canaries, Madeira and the Azores are in a physical point of view appendages of Africa, being parts of a submarine continuation from the chain of Mount Atlas.

The new continent was unknown, when Iceland, a dependence of Greenland was discovered and geographers placed it among the islands in the neighbourhood of Europe. The same opinion was maintained by historical and political writers; but it is not difficult to prove that Europe terminates on the northwest, at the Feroe islands. The arctic regions, whether they consist of islands or pen-

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insulas that are separated from our continent by the ocean, form part of North America.

Superficial extent.

Enclosed within the limits that have been described, the surface of Europe is at least equal to 500,000 square leagues, twenty-five of which are equivalent to an equatorial degree—the population of the same continent amounts to 200,000,000 souls. We have stated these conclusions in round numbers; but from our want of information concerning the extent of particular countries and the number of their inhabitants, our results cannot be considered very accurate. The annual increase in the European population is not, according to the lowest estimates, less than a million.

Dimensions.

We subjoin those dimensions of Europe that appear to us most worthy of notice.

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From Cape Matapan, in Greece, to Cape North, (the greatest breadth of Europe,)	870
From the Black Sea to the Baltic, (third angustation,) . . .	268
From the Caspian to the White Sea, (fourth angustation,) . .	485

Centre.

Warsaw is the most central of the large European towns; but the basin of Bohemia is the physical centre, since it bounds on the north the great range of mountainous districts, which, as we shall afterwards see, form what may be called the *Upper Countries* of Europe. The seas and

numerous gulfs that bathe our peninsula, distinguish it from other parts of the earth. So great masses of water placed between different countries, are not to be found in Asia, Africa, New Holland or even in the greater part of America. They modify the temperature by rendering it humid and variable, promote commerce by facilitating the intercourse from one place to another, are favourable to the freedom of nations, for like mountainous chains, they form natural ramparts, that have unfortunately been too often neglected.

Atlantic Ocean.

The western or Atlantic ocean washes Europe on the west and the north. It is needless to distinguish the sea to the north of the British isles, between Greenland and Norway, by the name of the northern ocean, which has been bestowed on it by some navigators. The name of the frozen sea is also inapplicable to any in Europe, even to the one between Cape North and Waigatz Strait, because it is seldom covered with ice to any great extent. The constant agitation of these open seas is the chief advantage that they possess over those in Siberia and America.

White Sea.

The White Sea, a gulf that receives the fresh streams of three considerable rivers, is more liable to freeze than any of the rest. We allude in particular to the western part of it, in which rocks and islands are most thickly scattered. Its shores are in general low and abound in barren rocks or turbid marshes; like the sea of Nova Zembla, it is subject to violent tempests, which setting out from the north-east, impel against the northern extremities of Europe all the unknown seas to the north of Siberia.

North or German Sea.

We enter, after having doubled Cape Stat or the western point of Norway, the gulf which has been called the north or the German sea. It extends from the Shetland islands to the strait at Calais and from the shores of England to the entrance of the Jutland channel. Its coasts formed by rocks in Norway and Scotland, become gradually very low; in many places they are covered with sand or full of ooze and exposed to inundations or encroachments of the sea. The coast in the lower part of

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Scotland and in Yorkshire is protected by hills; but in the small gulf called the Wash, the sea flows frequently to the distance of a mile into the land; and the submarine woods on the shores of Lincolnshire are the undoubted monuments of its former ravages. The Nore or the mouth of the Thames is exposed to the same devastations, but in a less degree. All the coasts in the Low Countries bear the marks of them and are only maintained in their present state by the inhabitants, who have erected dikes where the billows have not formed barriers against their advances. The shores of Holstein and Sleswick have been more than once inundated; the ruins in the island of Nordstrand, which was overwhelmed in 1634, are proofs of the revolutions that have reduced Heligoland to its present narrow limits. But the land has been enlarged by the fertile alluvial deposits in that part of the sea which mariners call the *Gulf of Hamburg*.[b] The coasts of Jutland to the north of these countries, were perhaps in ancient times more exposed; but they are now guarded by a double rampart of banks and sandy hills. We have often seen dense mists rising from that sea, break into fantastical shapes, extend on the shore, and fall at last in the form of saline particles: the growth of trees was thus checked, but the grass assumed a fresher verdure.

Jutland Channel.

The English and the Dutch have given the name of the Sleeve to that part of the sea between Norway and Jutland. It is sometimes, but incorrectly, styled *Skager Rack*, a term which signifies merely the passage of Rack; it might be better denominated the Norway or Jutland channel. It is very deep near its northern shores and contracted on the south by the vast and sandy promontory of Jutland, which is surrounded by gravel banks or rocks that are considered very dangerous even by the mariners of the country.

Katte-Gat.

Another channel, the Katte-Gat to the south of the extremities of Jutland, near Cape Skagen, is narrower

[b] The Mouth of the Elbe.

than the former; it is crowded with islands and rocks, separates Jutland from Sweden and is terminated by three straits, the Sound, the Great and Little Belts, of which the numerous windings encompass the Danish archipelago.

The Baltic.

All these straits enter the Mediterranean of the north, or, as it is generally called, the Baltic; but it has been named the Eastern Sea by the Scandinavians and Germans. Its basin on the south is surrounded by sandy plains or by low mounds of chalk; the eastern coast of Sweden and the southern coast of Finland are encompassed by rocks or quick-sands; there are no hills near these shores, the water in the vicinity is shallow, very salt and frequently covered with ice. That sea receives the superfluous water of all the lakes in Finland, Ingria and Livonia, the greater number of rivers in Holland and Eastern Germany, and the numerous streams in the north of Sweden, swollen by the snow or the torrents on the Dofrine mountains. So many tributary streams enter into no sea of the same size; on that account it resembles a lake, and the melting of the snow in summer determines the course of a current which runs into the North Sea by the Sound and the Belts. At other seasons the currents are regulated by the prevailing winds. The Gulf of Bothnia, which is like a separate lake, and the Gulf of Finland, that has been compared to a river, discharge their currents throughout almost the whole of the year into the great basin of the Baltic. Impelled in the direction of the current, the masses of ice in the interior of the Baltic, often unite and remain in the straits of Denmark.

British Channel.

We return by the north sea and observe the straits of Dover or the Pas de Calais and the British Channel or the Manche. Shallow and confined, it is subject, from its communication with the Atlantic, to high and impetuous tides.

Bay of Biscay.

The Bay of Biscay or the gulf of Gascony need not be distinguished from the Atlantic, of which it forms a part. We may remark the contrast between it and the sea of Newfoundland situated exactly under the same parallel; the Polar ice driven by the currents on these shores, oc-

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casions in summer thick and dark fogs; but floating ice cannot enter the Bay of Biscay from the configuration of the coast; and the humidity common to maritime countries is in a great measure checked by the continued motion of the atmosphere.

The Mediterranean.

The Strait of Gibraltar leads into the Mediterranean, that series of inland seas equally interesting from their situation, their physical character and historical celebrity. The first basin of the Mediterranean terminates at Cape Buono and the Strait of Messina. It is divided into two unequal parts by Corsica and Sardinia; but the Gulfs of Genoa and Lyons are the only places that are at present generally designated. The depth of the basin is about a thousand or fifteen hundred fathoms near the shores where the sea washes the base of the Pyrenees, the Alps and the Appenines.

Italian Sea.

The eastern part may be denominated the Italian Sea, numerous volcanic islands, such as the Lipari, Pontia and many others are scattered over it; and all of them are connected with the same subterraneous fires that rise from Etna and Vesuvius. The second basin is nearly twice as large, but very few islands or rocks have been observed on it. It extends from the coasts of Sicily and Tunis to the shores of Syria and Egypt, and forms in the north two separate basins renowned in history and well adapted to excite the attention of the physical geographer. The first

Adriatic Sea.

is the Adriatic, its bed, if carefully examined, appears to be composed of marble and lime mixed with shells. The

Archipelago.

second is the Archipelago or White Sea of the Turks, its numerous and picturesque islands are all of volcanic origin. The gulf of the Great Syrtes on the south penetrates into Africa: its sandy coasts are lower than most others in the Mediterranean; its vast marshes in the midst of moving sands are of variable extent and seem to confound the limits of the land and sea. But the most remarkable basin in the Mediterranean is without doubt that

Black Sea.

of the Black Sea. Its entrance is formed by the strait of the Dardanelles, the Propontis or the sea of Marmora and

the Bosphorus or the narrow channel of Constantinople. It is fed by the greatest rivers in central Europe, and receives by the strait of Caffa or the Cimmerian Bosphorus, the turbid waters of the Palus-Meotis, which the moderns have so inaccurately denominated the sea of Azoph. Such are at present the limits of those inland seas which separate Europe from Asia, and Africa, and facilitate the communication between the ancient continents. It is not perhaps improbable that a former strait, gradually obstructed in the course of ages by the gravel and alluvial deposits from the torrents of Caucasus, connected, long after the last physical revolutions that happened in our globe, the sea of Azof and consequently the Black Sea with the Caspian.

Currents in the Mediterranean.

The deep waters in the Mediterranean arrive chiefly from the Nile, the Danube, the Dneiper and other rivers that enter the Black Sea, and also from the Po, the Rhone and the Ebro. Thus it receives the torrents formed by the melting of the snow in Abyssinia, Switzerland, Caucasus and Mount Atlas. But although its feeders are so abundant, it has been generally believed that the quantity of water which enters the Mediterranean from the Atlantic is greater than that discharged from it into the same ocean. It has been alleged in support of this supposition, that a constant and large current flows into the middle of the strait at Gibraltar, whilst only two feeble and lateral currents issue from it. But that apparent influx of the ocean is to be attributed to the pressure of a greater fluid mass on a smaller body of water; a pressure, which from the force of its impulsion, must necessarily displace the upper strata in the lesser mass. If an anchor be cast in the strait, a lower current may be discovered, which carries to the ocean the superfluous water of the interior sea. The principal motion of the Mediterranean is from east to west, but the reaction of its water against the coast occasions several lateral and adverse currents. The straits too from their position give rise to many very variable currents. Those near Cape Pharo in Messina or the Charybdis of the ancients and the Euripus between the continent and the

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island of Negropont, are the most remarkable. The tides are in most places hardly perceptible, but they may be observed in the Adriatic and in the gulf of the Syrtes.

Caspian Sea.

We consider that part of the Caspian from the mouth of the Kuma to that of the Jaik, situated in Europe; but as two-thirds of its circumference belong to Asia, it has been described in our account of that continent. The greater number of rivers enter it from the side of Europe. Its level is 1680 feet lower than that of the ocean.

Coasts of Europe.

The seas that have been mentioned form in Europe a coast line of 5500 leagues, the extension of the same line in Asia is not more than 880. These seas are of immense advantage to Europeans; they separate them on the north from the frozen regions of the Arctic Pole, and protect them on the south against the scorching heats of Africa; they increase the resources of commerce and navigation, and place, if we may so speak, the inhabitants of Europe in the neighbourhood of the other continents. They abound in a great variety of fish, which might afford sufficient nourishment for a fifth part of the European population. Their superficial extent may be estimated in the following manner:

MEDITERRANEAN.

	Square Leagues, Twenty-five equal to a Degree.
1. Western part to Cape Buono and the Strait of Messina,	42,680
2. The Adriatic,	8,180
3. The Archipelago and the Propontis,	10,120
4. Great Basin or Eastern part,	71,000
Total Superficies of the Mediterranean,	131,980
The Black Sea and the Sea of Azof,	23,750
The Caspian Sea,	18,600
The White Sea,	5,000
The Baltic,	17,680
Gulf of Bothnia,	5,100

Gulf of Finland,	2,300
The Katte-Gat, the Sound, the two Belts, the branches of the sea between the Danish and Holstein islands, and the channel between Denmark and Norway to Cape Lindeness,	2,680
The German Ocean, limited by Cape Stat in Norway, the Shetland islands, and Cape Lindeness,	32,000
The Irish Channel,	3,400
The British Channel,	3,700

Lakes.

The great number of fresh water lakes in several countries of Europe forms another characteristic of its physical geography; all the lakes, it is true, are not equal in extent to those in North America. The first of these regions lies to the south of the Wolga, the west of the Baltic and the south-east of the White sea. The following are the principal Lakes:—

	Square Leagues.
Lake Ladoga,	830
—— Onega,	430
—— Bielo Osero,	70
—— Kubensk, Latscha, and Woja,	80
Five others between Kargapol and the White Sea,	75
Lakes, Wig, Seg, Ando, and seven to the north-west of the Onega,	100
Lake Peipus,	110
—— Huron,	36
—— Wirtz,	10
Five in the government of Plescow,	10
Lake Saima in Finland,	210
—— Kuopio,	80
—— Lexa,	30
—— Kolkis,	70
—— Tavastie,	20
—— Ulea,	30
Twelve others,	60
Sum Total of square leagues,	2,251

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The surface of them all is nearly equal to that of the gulf of Finland.

Scandinavian lakes.

The Lakes in Scandinavia are not so large, but more numerous than those which have been now enumerated. The extent of Wener is about 280, of the Weter, 110, of the Moelar, 100, and of the Scandinavian lakes, from 700 to 800 square leagues. They are, with the exception of one or two, placed on the southern and eastern sides of the mountainous chain that traverses the country. Those in northern Russia, on the contrary, are situated on the western sides of the mountains. All of them flow into the Baltic, and are the sources which supply that inland sea. Many small lakes are scattered over the countries to the south of the Baltic. More than four hundred have been counted in Mecklenburg, Ukraine, in the interior of Pomerania and eastern Prussia. Some of them which have no outlet to the sea, are not unlike marshes, they lie in low vallies, formed by the sinking of argillaceous and sandy land.

Lakes to the south of the Baltic.

Alpine lakes.

There are fewer in the Alpine chain than in the Scandinavian mountains. We observe on the southern sides of the Alps, the lake Maggiore about 20 square leagues in circumference, those of Lugano, Como, Lecce, Iseo and Garda, the surface of the last is equal to 24; their whole superficial extent together with that of others less considerable, may amount to 80 square leagues. The lakes on the northern sides of the Alps are more numerous; that of the Four Cantons occupies a space of about 13 square leagues; among others we may mention those of Thun, Brientz, Neufchatel, which is not less than 15, those of Biel, Zug, Sursee, Zurich, Wallenstadt, Greiffensee and Constance, of which the superficies is more than 38. There are five or six in Upper Suabia, twelve in Bavaria, the most remarkable are the lakes of Amner and Chieni; lastly, we have to notice those in Austria or the lakes of Atter, Abend, Hallstadt and others to the east of Salzburg. Their surfaces may be estimated at 180 square leagues. The lakes of Geneva and Annecy are situated on the western side of the Alps,

the former covers an area of 44 square leagues; the rest are too insignificant to merit attention.

Italian lakes.

There are four or five small lakes in the peninsula of Italy, in the middle of the chain of the Appenines, and all of them are of a circular form and encompassed by steep rocks. The Italian geologists consider them the monuments of a volcanic revolution which must have taken place in the centre of the peninsula. The number of lakes in the western parts of Europe is inconsiderable, particularly in Portugal, Spain, France and England. The contrast in Ireland is striking, one of the Irish lakes is not less than that of Zurich, ten or twelve others exclusively of the fens or bogs which shall afterwards be more fully described, occupy a hundredth part of the territory in that island.

Irish lakes.

The proportion between the basin.

The European rivers have been compared in a table added to this book, some of the general results which are there presented, may now be mentioned.

If all the rivers in Europe be taken as .	1.000
Those which flow into the Black Sea are,	0.273
Into the Mediterranean, including the Archipelago and the Adriatic, . .	0.144
Into the Atlantic Ocean, . .	0.131
Into the North Sea, . .	0.110
Into the Baltic, . . .	0.129
Into the Northern Ocean, . .	0.048
Into the Caspian, . . .	0.163

The six largest rivers in Europe.

Some conclusions may be derived concerning the six largest rivers in Europe, from the hydrographical works that have been published concerning our continent.

The water discharged from the Wolga, .	0.144
From the Danube, . . .	0.124
From the Dneiper, . .	0.061
From the Don, . . .	0.052
From the Rhine, . . .	0.030
From the Dwina, . . .	0.021

These results depend on the course of each river and that of its feeders; it is necessary however to take into

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consideration the lakes that flow from them; but without reference to that circumstaace, our calculation as to the six largest rivers in Europe may be considered sufficiently accurate. The other rivers next to those which have been enumerated, are the Po, the Rhone, the Ebro, the Guadalquiver, the Tagus, the Loire, the Elbe and the Vistula, but all of them united are not equal to the Wolga. The Kama, a mere feeder of the Wolga, and one that is little known, is not less than the Rhine, a river celebrated in history. The Seine, with all its tributary streams, does not make up 0.009 of all the European rivers.

European mountains.

We pass from our imperfect account of the rivers to that of the European mountains; the Ural range, which is common to us with Asia, has been described in a preceding volume. It does not form a continuous line on the side of Europe, but resembles a number of hills rising insensibly from the centre of Russia in an eastern and north-eastern direction; although their summits are broken or ill-defined, they are placed on an elevated base, and their absolute level is not less than that of the mountains in Silesia and Saxony; their greatest height is equal to 7000 feet. The hills or rocks that traverse Russia are not visibly connected with the Ural or any European range.

The table-land of Waldai, from which the Wolga descends to the Caspian, the Dwina to the Baltic and the Dneiper to the Black Sea, is a lofty plain crowned with hills from twelve to thirteen hundred feet above the level of the Sea. It becomes much lower on the side of Poland; the sources of the Beresina, the Neimen and the Pripetz are situated on a plain of which the inclination is imperceptible, and the height not more than two hundred feet above the sea at the mouth of these rivers. The elevation of the granite rocks which are connected with the Carpathian mountains and divide the course of the Dneiper, is also very low, it cannot be distinguished near the shores at the sea of Azof.

The Dofrine mountains.

The Dofrines, or the Scandinavian Alps, are better marked than the Ural chain, but as completely isolated

from the other mountains in Europe. The whole range extends from Cape Lindeness or the southern point of Norway to Cape North in the island of Mageroe. The central mountains are more closely connected. Lapland and the south-west of Norway are crowned by two separate chains. Steep rocks, frightful precipices, high cataracts, and glaciers recal to our recollection the lofty mountains on our globe; the same range abounds in picturesque beauties; but its most elevated summits are not more than seven or eight thousand feet above the level of the sea. The *Seves* an inland branch, which bound Norway and Sweden, enter into the latter kingdom and terminate in a number of hills. Others which traverse Lapland and are connected with Finland, are lost round the numerous lakes in that country.

The Caledonian mountains.

The Grampian or Caledonian mountains form, like those in Wales, a separate group of several small and parallel chains, their greatest elevation does not amount to 5000 feet. These chains are without doubt connected by a submarine continuation with the rocks in the Orkney, Shetland and perhaps the Feroe islands; their general direction is from southwest to northeast.

The Cambrian mountains in the principality of Wales, and those in the north west of England, are lower than the Caledonian range.

Great northern plain.

A plain extends on the north and the east of Europe, two distinct chains, those of Caledonia and Scandinavia rise above it. The south and the centre of the same continent present a very different character. All the mountains, from the pillars of Hercules to the Bosphorus, from Etna to Blocksberg are so many parts of the same series. We shall however both on account of several physical considerations and in conformity to the common method, divide them into four ranges.

The Alps.

That of the Alps is the most remarkable and most central of them all. Mount Blanc, the highest mountain in Europe, is situated in the principal Alpine chain. The length of the line from Mount Ventoux in Dauphiny to

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Mount Kahlenberg in Austria, is about 600 miles. The height of the summits is from ten thousand to fifteen thousand feet; that of the passages across the principal chains is generally from five to six thousand. But the elevation of the plains on the north of the Alps, in Switzerland and Bavaria, is about a thousand, and in some places two thousand feet, while those in Lombardy and Hungary, which bound the Alpine range on the south and the east, are not much higher than the level of the sea. Perpetual ice commences at an elevation between seven and eight thousand feet, and forms in the centre of the Alps frozen seas like those at the poles. The ice disappears at a height above 10,800 feet, the atmospheric vapour is congealed as it descends, and covers the ground with eternal snow. The great depth of the Alpine lakes is peculiar to these mountains, one of them, the lake of Achen is not less than 1800 feet in depth. The phenomena which the structure of the Alps exhibits, the imposing beauties which their different aspects present, their influence on climate and on the movements of waters, cannot at present occupy our attention; it is only our object to determine their position.

The Appenines.

The Appenines on the south and the chains connected with them, which may be called the *Sub Appenines*, form the southern branch of the Alpine series, of which the height is from four to nine thousand feet; but some of the mountains in the neighbouring islands are higher than 10,000. Those in Sicily are evidently connected with the Appenines, and the elevation of the highest or of Etna, is partly to be attributed to volcanic eruptions. But it is as yet uncertain whether or not there are mountains of an equal height in Sardinia; the connexion between the Corsican and Sardinian chains is also imperfectly known.

Dinarian Alps.

An eastern branch of the Alps passes between the feeders of the Danube and the Adriatic Sea, and unites the chain with that of Mount Hemus. These mountains are very narrow in many parts of Carniola and Dalmatia; the height of their summits is from seven to ten thousand feet.

The northern branch of the Alps includes the chain of Jura from Geneva to Bâle, and that of Vogeses or Vosges, from Langres to the neighbourhood of Mayence. The last of these is connected with the mountains in central Germany and consequently with the Carpathian range, which joins the Alps in Austria. Jura, Vosges.

The chain of Cevennes and its dependences, the volcanic mountains of Auvergne, are considered a branch of the Alps, although they are united to the Pyrenees by the Black mountain and separated from the Alps by the narrow valley of the Rhone. The Cevennes.

The peninsula of the Pyrenees is formed by a central plain of about 1000 or 1500 feet in height, and on it are placed groups of mountains and different chains distinctly marked. The Pyrenees in the north, and the Alpujarras or the *Sierra Nevada*, in the south, may be compared to the two outer bulwarks of the base. The elevation of the first or the Pyrenees, is about 9000 or 10,000 feet, the second are from 10,000 to 11,000, near the centre. But that height does not extend to a great distance, as in the Alps; and the Pyrenees are not nearly equal to them in breadth; on that account the phenomena of ice and perpetual snow are not so remarkable. The mountains in Gallicia and in Asturias are imperfectly known, the intermediate chains or the Guadarama between the two Castilles, the Sierra Morena to the north of Andalusia, and the Estrellas in Portugal are not higher than 5000 or 6000 feet. We shall examine in our description of the particular countries in which they are situated, their mutual positions and supposed relations, for some of them, it may be remarked, have not been determined. It is sufficient to observe at present that we are not entitled to conclude that there is any connexion between the Pyrenees and Mount Atlas, or even between the Azores and the Canaries. Pyrenees. The Alpujarras.

Mount Hemus and its branches are situated at the other extremity of Europe in a peninsula not so well defined as that of Spain. In the present defective state of our know- Mount Hemus.

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ledge, the Despoti-Dag or the ancient Scomius, north of Macedonia, may be considered the centre from which four chains extend. The first is that of the Albano-Dalmatian mountains, which are attached to the Alps; the second or the range of Hemas stretches out in an eastern direction until it is abruptly lost in the waters of the Euxine; the third, or the inland chain of Rhodope separates Thrace from the Ægean sea; the fourth is distinguished by the poetic names of Olympus, Pindus, Oeta, Parnassus, Helicon and Lycæus, it crosses Greece and passes into the islands of the Archipelago. As the Hellenic mountains have never been accurately measured, it is impossible to determine whether or not they are higher than the Appenines; we are, however, inclined to believe that they are, from the long continuance of snow on them.

Olympus, Pindus, &c.

Carpathian and Hercynian.

The Carpathian and Hercynian mountains are separated from the Alps and Hemus by the Danube, and in two places, the first in Austria, the second between Servia and Walachia, the branches of these mountains contract the bed of the river, and form several narrow passes. The whole range may be supposed the forepart of the Alps, the highest summits that have been measured, are not more than 9000 feet; but the general elevation is from four to five thousand, or, in other words, the same as the passages across the Alpine chain. Their breadth is considerable, they bound immense plains or enclose high vallies, such as those of Bohemia and Transylvania. No other mountains in Europe are so rich in gold, silver and copper. Their height is not comparatively great, no glaciers have been observed on them; they are not very steep, and there are none of these cavities which serve as reservoirs for the deep lakes in the Alps and the Dofrines. The Transylvanian mountains form the principal part of the range; they are not at present distinguished by any particular name; in ancient times they were called the Bastarnian Alps; the other parts are the Carpathian or *Crapack* mountains between Hungary and Poland, the Sudetes or the hills of the giants between Silesia and Bohemia, the mountains or the *Ertzburge*, between the last country and

ony, and lastly, the different small chains in central Germany, formerly included in the Hercynian forest.

It is not improbable that it may be one day shown that the Carpathian mountains and the chain of Hemus are adjuncts of the great Alpine range. The Pyrenees, on the other hand, may be considered a separate chain, distinguished by the central and lofty plain which resembles that in Asia Minor; but the correctness of this hypothesis can only be ascertained by a greater number of observations; a change of classification at present might be tiresome, at all events it could not be attended with any advantage.

European plains.

It is not easy to discover in what the plains of Europe differ from many in other parts of the earth, unless it be that they are in general smaller than those in Asia, Africa, and America. The most extensive are Wallachia and Bulgaria, or those on the lower Danube and the Hungarian plain on the same river, which, as it must have been at one time the basin of a salt water lake, is perhaps the most remarkable in the world. The valley of the Po occupies the third place as to size; but its rich cultivation has been in few countries equalled, and in none surpassed. The plain of the Rhine between Bâle and Mayence is of an elliptical shape, and the circular basin of Bohemia may be compared to the famous valley of Cashmere. The vallies on the plain of the Upper Rhine are the largest of any on what is strictly termed the Alpine chain; but the valley of Carinthia, although less celebrated in romance, does not yield to it in picturesque scenery. We might anticipate our particular account of different countries, were we to enumerate other plains less extensive; but it may be remarked that the vallies in Norway and Scotland are generally circumscribed by long and narrow outlines, and near the centre of many of them are situated lakes of the same form.

Upper and lower Europe.

We are led to conclude from this summary of European orography, that our quarter of the world is naturally divided into two parts, the *upper* and the *lower*, and that division is not less important in physical geography than in its relation to the history of man. A vast plain,

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from London and Paris to Moscow and Astracan, lies open to the invasions of Asiatic nations; it is subject to the alternate influences of Siberian and Oceanic atmospheres; its lowness renders it warmer and more habitable than the table-land of Tartary, which is placed under the same parallel. A continuation of elevated land extends from Lisbon to Constantinople, and the direction of its heights and declivities is very different in different places; some parts are exposed to cold and northern winds, others are visited by the genial and refreshing breezes of the south. Nations are everywhere separated by natural barriers, defiles must be crossed, and gulfs must be passed. That remark is especially applicable to our continent; were it not for the roads on which so much labour has been employed, the communication must have been very difficult between the countries on the north and south of the Alps, in every season of the year. But, on the other hand, no natural obstacles impede during the winter, the heavy waggon or the light carriage in the plains of lower Europe; on that account perhaps, the inhabitants of the north are more addicted to travelling than the people in the south. Both are favoured by nature. But all the productions of our continent are united in upper Europe; the northern declivities and the elevated points on the central chains bear the plants that are found in the highest latitudes of lower Europe; that portion of the same continent does not yield such variety of produce, but its plains are more extensive, and its culture is more uniform. We shall reserve, however, such discussions for the next book, and close our observations with the following remark. If the ocean rose fifteen or sixteen hundred feet, northern Europe would be submerged, the Euxine and the Caspian would join the Baltic and the north sea; southern Europe, on the contrary, being higher than the level of the waters, might form two large and high islands. The contrast, however, is not complete, the distinction between the European islands might be destroyed by the two great vallies of Hungary and Lombardy, and two mountainous countries, Norway and Scotland.

Some of the results connected with the physical geography of Europe are marked in the subjoined tables.

Table of different Rivers in Europe.

	Inclinations.	Rivers.	Course.—Miles.
I. European part of the Frozen Ocean.	I. North-west declivity of the Ural mountains.	Petzora,	450
	II. Northern declivity of the Russian ridge, basin of the White Sea.	Metzen,	300
		Dwina,	480
		Onega,	210
	III. North-east of Scandinavia.	*Tana*,	150
II. Baltic.	I. Eastern inclination of Scandinavia and western of Finland. Basin of the Gulf of Bothnia.	Torneo,	240
		Liusua,	258
		Dala,	294
		Ten or twelve others,	180
	II. Southern inclination of Finland. Wester of Ingria. Basin of the Gulf of Finland.	Neva, the Bosphorus of Ladoga.	
		Kymene, outlet of the Finland lakes.	
	III. Western declivity of the central chain of Russia.	Dwina or Duna,	420
		Niemen,	450
	IV. Northern declivity of the Sudetes and Carpathian mountains.	Vistula,	500
		Bug,	300
		Narewa,	150
		Oder,	450
		Wartha,	330
		Netza,	150
	V. Southern coasts of Sweden.	Outlets of different lakes.	
III. North Sea.	I. Southern inclination of Norway, western of Sweden, north-east of Denmark, &c.	*Glomma*,	270
		Gotha, *Clara*, and lake, Vener,	375
	II. Northern declivity of the Sudetes and the Hercynian mountains, or northern Germany.	Elbe,	570
		Saale,	180
		Spree and *Havel*,	225
		Weser,	300
		Aller,	135
		Ems,	210
	III. Western part of Germany, northern of Swisserland, eastern and northern of France and Holland.	Rhine,	670
		Reuss,	145
		Aar,	144
		Neckar,	150
		Mein,	330
		Moselle,	348
		Lippe,	120
		Meuse,	360
		Scheldt,	204

BOOK XCIV.

Table continued.

	Inclinations.	Rivers.	Course.—Miles.
III. North Sea, *continued.*	IV. Eastern part of Great Britain.	Thames,	180
		Trent or Humber,	180
		Tay,	90
	V. Western of Norway.	Torrents.	
IV. European parts of the Atlantic.	I. Western side of Great Britain.	Severn,	180
	II. Western of Ireland.	Shannon,	210
	III. The British Channel north-west of France.	*Somme,*	90
		Seine,	330
		Marne,	210
		Vilaine,	90
		Loire,	540
		Allier,	210
		Cher,	180
		Vienne,	180
	IV. Western part of France.	*Charente,*	150
		Garonne,	345
		Dordogne,	210
		Lot,	180
		Tarn,	180
		Adour,	180
	V. North of Spain.	Small rivers.	
		Minho,	165
		Douro,	365
		Esla,	135
	VI. West of Spain.	Tagus,	480
		Guadiana,	420
		Guadalquiver,	300
		Xenel,	150
V. Mediterranean.—First basin, European part.	I. East of Spain.	*Segura,*	210
		Xucar,	210
		Ebro,	375
		Segra,	210
	II. South of France.	Rhone,	390
		Saone,	210
		Doubs,	195
		Isere,	135
		Durance,	120
	III. Western declivities of the Appenines and their branches.	Arno,	105
		Tiber,	180
		Volturno,	90
VI. Adriatic.	I. Eastern declivity of the Appenines.	Ofanto,	90
	II. South-east declivity of the Alps.	Po,	[illegible]
		Tanaro,	[illegible]
		Tessino, and lake T[illegible]	[illegible]
		Adda,	[illegible]
		Oglio,	[illegible]
		Adige,	[illegible]

Table continued.

	Inclinations.	Rivers.	Course.—Miles.
VI. Adriatic, *continued.*	III. Southern part of Dalmatia.	*Narenta,*	120
		Boyano and Moraca,	120
	IV. Western inclination of Hemus.	Northern *Dwina,*	180
		Voioussa,	120
VII. Second Basin of the Mediterranean.	I. Southern side of Sicily, Calabria, and the Morea.	*Aspropotamo,*	120
		Alpheus, Eurotas, &c.	90
	II. Archipelago, Eastern and Southern regions of Greece, Macedonia, &c.	*Vardar* or *Axius,*	225
		Marihra or *Hebrus,*	288
		Strymon,	170
		Peneus,	90
VIII. Black Sea.	I. Eastern declivity of the Alps, southern of the Sûdetes and Carpathian mountains.	Danube,	1710
		Lech,	120
		Isere,	180
		Inn,	240
		Morawa, in Moravia,	150
		Wag,	165
		Drave,	360
		Murr,	225
		Sare,	330
		Morawa in Servia,	210
		Theisse,	495
		Maresch,	330
		Aluta,	300
		Sereth,	300
		Pruth,	390
	II. Southern part of Russia and central Poland.	Dneister,	480
		Dneiper,	1050
		Sem,	510
		Desna,	210
		Priepetz,	300
		Bog,	420
	III. Basin of the Sea of Azof, southern inclination of Russia.	Don,	1080
		Tropez,	300
		Medwidiza,	300
		Donetz,	420
IX. Basin of the Caspian Sea.	I. Southern declivity of central Russia, southern and eastern of the Ural mountains.	Wolga,	2040
		Maloga,	270
		Occa,	630
		Klinsma,	270
		Wetluga,	390
		Suba,	330
		Kaura,	780
		Wiatka,	450
		Bielaia,	360
		Samara,	300
		Ural or Jaik, the boundary of Europe on the east,	1020

BOOK XCIV.

SUPERFICIAL EXTENT OF DIFFERENT BASINS.

	German Square Miles.
Basin of the Wolga,	30,154
——— Danube,	14,423
——— Don,	6,088
——— Dwina,	5,890
——— Rhine,	3,598
——— Vistula,	3,578
——— Elbe,	2,800
——— Loire,	2,378
——— Oden,	2,072
——— Douro,	1,638
——— Garonne,	1,443
——— Po,	1,416
——— Tagus,	1,357
——— Seine,	1,236

The last Table is taken from Lichenstein's cosmography, vol. i. p. 328. The author contrasts the superficial extent of these basins with that of others in different parts of the world.

	German Square Miles.
Basin of the Aby,	63,776
——— Saghalien,	53,559
——— St. Lawrence,	62,330
——— Amazons,	88,305
——— La Plata,	71,665

HEIGHT OF THE PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS IN EUROPE.

URAL MOUNTAINS.

	Feet.	
Pawdinskoi Kamen,	6,715	above the Caspian.
Idem,	6,632	above the Ocean.
Tanagai,	9,061	doubtful.
Komchefskoï,	8,133	ibid.
Table Land of Waldai,	1,322	

SCANDINAVIAN MOUNTAINS.

Thalian chain. Western Norway.	Guta-field,	5,220	Hagelstan's physical map.
	Glacier of Hallingdal,	6,470	
	Gousta,	5,413	perpetual snow.
	Folgefond,	7,238	
	Fille-field,	6,425	
	Suletind,	5,884	
	Sogne-field,	7,862	Glacier.
	Lang-field,	7,216	

		Feet.	
Western Norway, *continued.*	Snee-Brœenar,		
	Snow Dome,	6,396	
	Elevated base of the chain,	3,198	
	Laurdal,	3,524	Eastern extremities of the base.
	Johnsknude,	2,864	
Dofrine chain. Central Norway. North-west of Sweden.	Passage of Lessoe,	2,558	
	Dofre,	7,427	Glacier.
	Passage of Jerken,	5,295	
	Snee Hœttan, or Snow Hat,	8,887	According to M. Esmarck 7,523.
	Kœl field,	2,837	
	Tran field,	6,441	
	Sylt field,	7,071	
	Areskuta,	5,163	Extremity of a secondary chain. Omissions.
	Sulitelma, (Lapland)	6,760	
	Saulo,	4,081	
	Tulpayegna,	4,301	
	Linayegna,	6,064	
The Severnoi, or Sevous, between Norway and Sweden.	Swucku,	5,135	
	Transtrand,	3,513	
	Mount Seva,	1,066	supposed to be higher.
	The desert of Swartburg,	1,918	
Maritime chain of Lapland.	Island of Waag, Glacier,	4,264	
	——— Hurd,	4,264	
	Joke field, (Peninsula)	4,370	
	Storvands field,	3,837	
	Seyland, (Island of) Glacier	4,155	
	Voriedader,	3,943	
	Rastekaisa,	3,837	
	Cape North,	1,570	
Mountains of Southern Sweden.	Lake of Fœmund, chain of the Dofrines,	2,258	
	Mios, Middle of Norway,	514	
	Silian, middle of Dalecarlia,	689	
	Stor, central plain of Jemptland,	1,071	
	Torneo, (Lapland)	1,491	
	Kinekulle, (West Gothland)	982	
	Lake Venner,	156	
	Lake Vetter,	312	
	Talberg, (Smoland)	1,100	
	Ramsgilla, (Idem.)	1,145	
	Lakes of Wexiæ, from 4,264 to	5,330	
	Island of Bornholm,	417	Oersted.

BOOK XCIV.

BRITISH MOUNTAINS.

Ben Nevis,	4,380	Jameson, &c.
Cairngorm,	4,317	
Benwyves,	3,702	
Benmore,	3,903	
Benlawers,	4,015	
Benvoirlich,	3,300	
Benlomond,	3,240	
Cheviot,	2,682	
Cross-fell, (Cumberland)	3,390	
Helvelly,	3,055	
Snowdon, (Wales)	3,571	
Schihallien,	3,281	
Blacklarg,	2,370	
Benledi,	3,009	
Cader Idris,	2,914	
Skiddaw,	3,022	
Macgellicuddy's Reeks, (Ireland)	3,404	
Sliebh-Donard,	2,786	
Chroug Patrick,	2,666	
Mangerton,	2,700	
Goat Fell, (isle of Arran)	2,865	
Snea Fell (Isle of Man)	2,004	
Summit of Hoy Island, (Orkneys)	1,700	
Mount Skaling, (Feroe Islands)	2,200	
St. Kilda, (Island of)	1,800	
Ronaberg, (Shetland Islands)	3,944	doubtful.

CEVENNES.

Mount Merin, source of the Loire,	5,820
Marguerite,	4,994
Lozere,	4,887
Puy de Montoncelle,	4,266
Pila, (near Lyons)	3,953
La Croix Touttee,	3,245
Mountains of Charolais,	2,301
Mount Salvy, (near Rhodez)	2,712
Rhodez,	2,194
Alby,	799
Cautal,	6,093
Puy Mary,	6,113
Mount Courlande,	5,410
Puy du Dome,	4,842

Puy Mareith,	5,160	
Puy de Saucy, (M. d'Or)	6,330	
Puy Ferrand,	6,112	
Puy Paillet,	5,748	
The town of Clermont,	1,342	
——— Limoges,	925	
——— Bourges,	515	
——— Orleans,	382	
——— Auxerre,	483	

PYRENEES.

Maladetta,	11,384	Vidal and Reboul.
Idem,	10,681	Cordier.
Mount Posatz,	10,952	Vidal and Reboul.
Mount Perdu,	11,257	Ramond
Vignmale,	11,002	Vidal and Reboul.
Cylindre du Marboré,	11,025	
Neouvieille,	10,200	
Breche de Roland,	9,658	
Pic du midi de Bagnere	9,594	
Idem de Pace,	8,997	
Pic de Montaigne,	7,794	Ramond.
Mount Moncal,	10,360	
Mount St. Barthelemi,	7,584	
Canigon,	9,213	Cassini.
Idem,	9,127	Mechain.
Port de Pinede,	8,255	Ramond.
Gavernie,	7,648	Idem.
Cavarere,	7,358	
Tourmalet,	6,135	
Col de Navaure,	620	

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

Anti-Pyrenees.	El Mulhacen, (Sierra Nevada)	11,812	Clemente Rojas.
	Picacho de Veletta,	11,217	Thalacker.
	The Alpujarras,	9,168	Pluer.
	Sierra de Gador, (Alpujarras)	7,870	Rojas.
	Cerrajon de la Muerta,	5,358	Idem.
	Sierra de Lujar (south of Grenada)	6,922	Idem.
	Granada, town of,	2,465	Belencourt.
Iberian Chain.	Sierra de Molina,	3,837	Antillon.
	Muela de Arias,	4,329	
	Pennagolosa,	2,404	
	Collado de Plata,	4,376	
	S. of Espadan,	3,509	
	Silla Torellos, (Majorca)	5,113	

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Sierra Morenna.	Almuradieb,	2,437	
	Puerto de Rey,	2,274	
	Rapids of the Guadiana,	159	
	Foya, (Algarva)	4,082	Franzini.
	Cape St. Vincent,	308	
Chain of the Tagus.	San Ildefonso,	6,679	
	Penalara, summit of Guadarama,	8,509	
	Madrid, town of,	2,630	Antillon.
	Estrelha, (Beira)	6,883	Franzini.
	Idem,	7,647	Balbi.
Gallician chain.	Gaviara, (Minho)	7,886	
	Pennas of Europa, (Asturias) from 8,528, to	9,594	conjectural.
	Passage of Lunada,	4,711	J. Penalver.
	Estella, (Catalonia)	5,805	Delambre.
	Puig-se Calm-Rodos, (idem.)	4,044	
	Morello, (idem.)	1,930	
	Montjouy, (idem.)	671	
	Rock of Gibraltar,	1,490	
	APPENINES.		
Anti-Appenines. Tuscany.	Colmo de Lecco, (Bochetta,	3,390	Schow.
	Monte Simone,	6,978	Almanach de Genes.
	San Pelegrino,	5,168	
	Alpe de Doccia,	4,413	
	Monte Barigazo,	3,858	
	Basco Lemgo,	4,451	
	Sasso Simone,	4,047	
	Monte Amiata,	5,792	
	Sienna, (Town of)	1,132	
	Radicofani,	3,057	
	Viterbo, (Town of)	1,339	
	M. Soracte,	2,269	
	M. Cappanna, (island of Elba)	3,837	
	M. Velino,	8,388	
	M. Sybilla,	7,502	
	Sasso d' Italia,	9,523	
	M. Amaro,	9,134	
	M. Catria,	5,550	
	M. Pennino,	5,167	
	Terminillo,	7,035	
	M. Cavo, (near Frosinone)	4,188	
Sub-Appenines. Latium.	M. Gennaro,	4,184	
	Roca di Papa,	2,376	
	Vesuvius,	3,735	Gay-Lussac, 1805.
	Epomeo, (island of Ischia)	2,518	
	Anacapri,	1,955	

M. Balgario, (near Salemi	3,724	
M. Calvo,	5,116	
Sila, (Calabria)	4,940	doubtful.
Etna, (Sicily)	10,954	
Pizzo di Case, (idem)	6,500	
Caro di Mofera, (idem)	6,248	
Portella dell Arena, (idem)	5,148	
Piano di Troglie, (idem)	4,956	
M. Cuccio near Palermo,	3,218	
Guiliano, (Eryx)	2,194	
M. S. Michael,	2,693	
Montagnuolo, (island of Felicudi)	3,050	
Monte Rotondo, (Corsica)	8,810	
Monte d'Oro, (idem)	8,746	

ALPS.

Maritime chain between Piedmont and France.

Caoumé, (near Toulon)	2,637	
St. Pilon,	3,230	
Mont de Lure,	5,754	
Mont Venteux,	7,235	
—— Charence, (near Gap,)	5,116	
Le col de Tende,	5,818	
Parpaillon, (near Barcelonette)	8,954	
Siolane,	9,696	
Le Col, between Maurin and Laclapière,	8,999	
Coal-mines, (near St. Oulp)	6,907	
Le Chalel le vieux,	11,098	
Loucira,	14,436	doubtful.
Loupilon,	14,128	idem.
Joselmo	14,056	Farmond.
Pelou de Valoumse,	13,860	
Mont Viso de Ristolas,	13,138	Morazzo.
Mont Viso, (another summit)	13,828	De Zach.
Source of the Po,	6,466	
Mont Genevre,	11,788	
Col de Mont Genevre,	6,223	
Cenis, (Rock St. Michel)	11,460	
Passage across Mount Cenis,	6,773	
Lake on Mount Cenis,	6,280	

CHAIN IN DAUPHINY LIMITED BY THE RHONE.

Pic de Pelladone,	10,232	
Chevalier,	8,742	

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Richardieres,	7,717	
Chamechaude,	6,860	
Cardgros,	4,797	

CHAIN OF MOUNT BLANC.

Mont Iseran,	13,278	Welden.
—— Valaisau,	10,929	
Passage of Little St. Bernard,	7,194	
Summit,	9,594	Saussure.
Col de la Seigne,	8,046	
Col de Bonhomme,	8,027	
Cramont,	8,964	
Col de Geant,	11,275	
Mont Blanc,	15,766	Saussure, Tralles and Pictet.
L'Allée Blanche,	14,775	
Priory of Chamonay,	3,463	
Le Buet,	11,193	
Aiguille de l'Argentiere,	12,804	
Great St. Bernard,	10,769	
Passage across the Great St. Bernard,	7,966	Zumstein and Welden.
Mount Rosa,	15,380	
Mount Cervin or Malterhorn,	13,974	
Passage across Cervin,	10,100	
Breithorn,	12,800	
Road across the Simplon,	6,579	

GROUP OF ST. GOTHARD.

Petchiroa, (one of the summits)	10,529
Pettina, (idem)	9,153
Fienda, (idem)	10,180
Passage of St. Gothard,	6,800
Furca,	14,040
Stella,	11,174
Piz Pisoc,	12,792
Source of the Rhone,	5,748
—— Reuss,	7,088
The Aar near Grimselberg,	5,945

FIRST HELVETIAN CHAIN BETWEEN BERN AND THE VALOIS.

Grimselberg,	9,704	
Lake of the Dead on the Grimsel,	7,067	
Finsteraarhorn,	14,094	Tralles.
Schreckhorn,	14,038	Oriani.
Wetterhorn,	12,176	Tralles.
Pieschorn,	13,325	
Eiger,	13,076	
Monch, (monk)	13,571	
Jungfrau, (Virgin)	13,720	
Doldenhorn,	12,030	
Blumli,	12,132	
Breithorn,	12,462	
Passage of Gemmi,	7,378	
Oldenhorn,	10,266	
Diablerets,	10,732	
Deut de Morcle,	9,541	
Niesen,	7,820	

SECOND HELVETIAN CHAIN BETWEEN BERN AND URI.

Muthorn,	10,446	Escher, Ebel, &c.
Gallenstock,	12,068	
Sussenhorn,	11,629	
Spitzli,	11,389	
Titlis,	11,416	

THE NORTH-WEST CHAIN CONNECTED WITH THE ABOVE RANGE.

Steinberg,	9,950
Bisistock,	6,941
Jauchlistock,	7,957
Scheinberg,	6,518
Hoch-Gant,	7,258
Mount Pilat, near Lucerne,	7,546

THE NORTH-EAST CHAIN.

Schlossberg,	10,408
Wollenstock,	8,612
Wendistock,	10,134
Church of Engelsberg,	3,424

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THIRD HELVETIAN CHAIN BETWEEN THE FOUR CANTONS AND THE GRISONS.

Trithorn,	7,754	Near Stella, see above.
Ober Alpstock,	10,918	
Crespalt,	6,874	
Piz Russein,	13,858	Division of the chain.

EASTERN BRANCH TO THE EAST OF GLARIS.

Dœdi,	11,765
Ristenberg,	10,265
Hausstock,	9,454
Hohe Kisten,	10,964

BRANCH PARALLEL TO THE RHINE AS FAR AS THE LAKE OF CONSTANCE.

Martinsloch,	10,112
Scheibe,	9,986
Twistols,	10,418
Great Kuhfirst,	7,308
Kamar,	5,772
Hochsentis,	8,111
Leistkamm,	6,873
Schnee Alp,	4,301
Silter near Appencell,	2,275
Mount Zurich,	2,385

WESTERN BRANCH IN CANTON SCHWYTZ, &c.

Scharhorn,	10,864
Klaridenberg,	10,693
Ross Stock,	8,688
Glarnisch,	9,561
Ruffi or Rossberg,	5,154
Rigi,	6,050

GREAT RHETIAN CHAIN. (GRISONS AND TYROL.)

Passage of Airolo at Medel,	7,192	near Stella.
Vogelberg,	10,286	
Muschelhorn,	10,948	M. Mayer.
Aporthorn,	10,956	M. Adule.

Forest of the Rhine,	5,126	
Bernhardin,	10,137	
Tombahorn,	10,494	
Passage of Splugen,	6,310	
Septimer,	9,594	approximation.
Longino,	9,355	
Passage of the Julier	7,280	
Err, summit of the Julian mountains,	13,858	founded on tradition.
Orteles,	12,859	Welden.
Hoch-Theray,	12,439	
Platey Rogel,	10,390	
Lake Refen,	6,151	
Greiner,	9,380	
Scheneiberg (near Sterzing)	8,274	
Brenner,	6,463	M. de Buch.
Habicht,	8,793	

NORTHERN RHETIAN CHAINS.

Grisons, Bavaria, Salzbourg.

Malixerberg,	8,034	
Rothehorn,	9,487	
Scesaplana	9,813	
Kamm (near Magenfeld)	8,101	
Coire (town of)	1,918	
Piz Linard from	12,800 to 13,850	Vague and incorrect estimate.

CHAIN BETWEEN TYROL AND BAVARIA.

Hochvogel	8,481	
Zugopitze	8,243	
Wetterstein,	8,122	
Solstein	9,706	
Almenspitze	9,684	
Watzmann	9,655	M. de Buch.
Breithorn	7,772	
Lake of Zegern	2,480	
——— St. Bartholomew	2,029	
Town of Munich	1,191	
Ratisbonne	1,034	

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SOUTHERN RHETIAN CHAINS.

Sasso del Fero near Lavenno	3,230	
Pizzo de Onsera,	3,206	
Lake of Lugano	930	
——— Como	636	
Milan	517	

CHAIN OF VALLE-TELINO.

M. Gario near Bormeo	11,756	
Legroucino	6,204	
M. Lignone	8,666	
M. Baldo	7,406	
M. Magiore	7,209	
M. di Nago	6,810	

GREAT *NORICAN* CHAINS, AUSTRIA.

The Great Glockner	13,713	M. Moll, supposed to be over-rated.
Village of Heiligenblut (Carinthia)	4,484	
Hohenwart	11,076	
Wisbach-Horn	11,519	
Gross-Kogel	9,700	
Taurn of Rauris	8,592	

NORTHERN BOUNDARIES OF CARINTHIA.

Hahe Varr	11,334	
Rauh-Eckberg	7,831	
Wilden-Kogel	5,813	
Salzburg (town of)	1,391	
Thorstein	9,632	Upper Austria, (Marcel de Serres, Schultes, and others.)
Kappenkarstein	8,076	
Kalmberg	5,926	
Lake of Hallstedt	1,660	
Grossemberg	8,932	

STYRIA AND LOWER AUSTRIA.

Summits of Winnfeld	8,583
Hoch-Gailing	6,204
Schneberg	6,952
Kahlenberg	1,433
Semmering	4,704

BOOK XCIV.

I.—CARMAN AND JULIAN CHAINS.

Venice—Carniola—Croatia.

M. Marero	5,038
Source of the Tagliamento	4,412
——— Piave	4,140
Krannerlegen	6,227
Terglow	9,906
Karst, to the north of Trieste	1,580
Suisnik, or snowy mountain	7,056
Kleck	6,692
Plissavisza	5,755
Mount Bardani	4,374
——— Biocava	5,101

II.—SUBALPINE CHAINS TO THE NORTH-WEST.

First Chain of Jura.

The Reculet	6,177
Dole	6,151
Chasseral	5,229
Lake of Joux	3,202
Mount of Or	4,797
Hassemate (Soleure)	4,774
Rothifluh	4,610
Mouton (Delemont)	4,412

Second Chain of Jura.

La Sule (Bellelay)	4,406
Gros Taurean (Pontarlier)	4,324

Chain between Jura and Vosges.

Mount Sapeau	2,902
——— Hircey	2,295

ZORAT.

Mountains connected with the Alps of Bern.

Mount Pelerin	4,083
Tour de Gourze	2,936
Lo Cole	2,888
Lausanne (town of)	1,668

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VOSGES.		
Tete d'Ours	4,580	
Presson	4,266	
Ballon de Guchwillier	3,956	
Ballon de Giromagny	3,516	
Ballon d'Alsace	4,124	
Haut de Honce	4,400	
Grand Ventron	3,160	
Donnersberg	2,556	
Hesselberg (near Bingen)	1,622	
COTE D'OR, &c.		
Mont Mareiselois (Langres)	1,663	Schuckburg.
Disjunction of the rivers near Langres	2,548	
Source of the Seine	1,424	
Top of Tasselot	1,962	
Dijon (town of)	664	
Feldberg	4,901	Stein.
BLACK FORES		
Boelchen	4,656	
Kandel	4,168	
Kohlgarten	3,930	
Lake of Eichen	1,561	
SUA , &c.		
Strenberg	2,958	
Rostberg	2,866	
Castle of Hohenzollern	2,794	
Lake of Thun	1,896	
—— Sempach	1,694	
—— Lucerne	1,431	
—— Zug	1,405	
—— Zurich	1,361	
—— Constance	1,160	
—— Beat	2,360	
—— Geneva	1,208	
—— Neufchatel	1,427	
—— Brenne	1,412	
HERCYNIO-CARPATHIAN MOUNTAINS.		
Western Carpathian Alps.		
Ruska Poyana	9,912	Balbi.
Gailuripi	9,594	Idem.

Buthest, (Transylvania)	8,698	
Idem, (Wallachia)	6,892	M. Lerchenfield.
Lentschitz,	8,466	
Uenokar,	7,878	
Retirzath, (high valley)	8,507	
Kukuratzo,	4,988	

Eastern Carpathian Chain.

Kronstadt, (Town of)	2,020	
Sural, (Szural)	7,591	
Budislaw,	7,974	

CARPATHIAN MOUNTAINS.

Gurabor,	4,882	
Pietrosz,	7,274	
Kriwan of Thureiz,	5,766	
Lomnitz,	8,460	Wahlenberg, Thomson, &c.
Krywan,	8,036	
Presiba,	6,423	
Green Lake,	5,047	
Babia Gora,	5,786	
Czorna Gora,	5,116	

THE GESENKE.

Alt Vater,	4,802	MM. Kalupa and Mosch.
Peterstein,	4,709	
Source of the little Oppa,	4,330	
Hackscha,	4,353	
Baude,	4,784	
Brunel,	4,371	
Lissa Hora near Teschen,	4,546	

SUDETES.

Hohe Eule, (Glatz)	3,543	
Otterstein,	3,366	
Schneeberg,	3,266	
Sturmhaube,	5,052	
Schneekuppe,	5,277	Gersdorf.
Zobtenberg,	2,460	
Vallies of Galtz,	1,384	
Tafelfichte,	3,715	
Lenchberg, (Basaltic)	2,920	

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METALLIC MOUNTAINS OR ERTZEBURGE.

Lausche,	2,564	
Anersberg,	3,148	
Schneekopf,	3,531	
Fichtelberg,	3,926	

INTERIOR OF BOHEMIA.

Hœltsch, (Mittelgebirge)	2,252	Kermann and David.
Donnerberg, (idem)	2,673	
Vineyards of Melnick, &c.	640	
Prague, (the observatory of)	590	
Budweiss, (Town of)	1,252	
Kreutzberg, (between Bohemia and Moravia,)	2,175	
Rotschotte, (idem)	1,512	
Brunn, (Town of)	550	

HERCYNIAN MOUNTAINS, BOHEMIAN CHAIN.

Postling, (near Linz on the Danube)	1,924	Kermann and David
Steinberg, (rock of)	3,495	
Ploeckenstein,	4,450	
Hohensthein,	4,285	
Rhoen, (Bohemia)	3,484	
Lusen,	4,578	
Source of the Moldava,	4,064	
Ruchel,	4,844	
Arber,	4,830	
Schneiberg (Franconia,)	3,692	
Fichtelberg, (Franconia)	3,855	

HERCYNIAN MOUNTAINS, NORTHERN AND WESTERN CHAINS.

Beerberg,	3,182	Forest of Thuringia.
Schneekopf,	3,172	
Inselberg,	2,974	
Observatory of Seeberg,	1,290	
Brocken or Blocksberg,	3,716	Range of the Hartz.
Bruchberg,	3,218	
Winterberg,	2,848	
Krentzberg,	2,934	
Dammersfeld,	2,696	Heller.
Meisner, (Basaltic)	2,326	
Feldberg,	2,775	

GROUP OF WESTERWALD.

Saltzburger Kopf,	2,774	

VOLCANIC GROUP, SEIBENBERGEN.

Lawenberg,	2,020	
High Veen to the west of the Rhine,	2,294	Marshy ridge between the Meuse and the Moselle.
Eiffel, idem.		
The Ardennes,	1,694	
Heights in the department of the Orne from	9,60 to 1,066	
Cape Stubbenkammer, (Ragen)	600	
Perleberg, (Mecklenburg)	682	
Galtgarbe, (Eastern Prussia)	540	
Himmelbierg, (Jutland)	1,278	
Monts Arce, (Britanny)	996	
—— Noirs, (idem)	816	
The Seine at Paris,	108	

MOUNTAINS IN GREECE.

Mountains of Croatia, &c. from	6,396 to 7,462	See above.
Orbelos, north of Macedonia,	from 9,600 to 11,730.	
Hemus,	from 6,376 to 7,462.	
Olympus,	6,522	doubtful.
Athos,	6,778	
Pindus,	from 7,460 to 8,520.	
Monte Nero, (Cephalonia)	4,264	
Ligrestosowo, (White mountains of Crete)	7,572	Sieber.
Psilorit, (Ida)	7,674	Idem.
Vrisina, (Crete)	2,824	Idem.
Kentros, (idem)	3,665	Idem.
Lassite, (idem)	7,462	Idem.
Mount Jupiter, (Naxos)	3,300	Gauttier.
Cocyla, (Scyros)	2,588	Idem.
Delphi, (Scopelos)	2,295	Idem.
Mount St. Elias, (Milos)	2,556	Idem.
Idem, (Paros.)	2,524	Idem.
Idem, (Thera)	1,924	Idem.
Veglia, (Astypaloea)	1,582	

HEIGHT OF BUILDINGS.

Cross of St Peter's,	536	above the base of the church.
Minster, (Strasburg)	463	Idem.
Summit of the Pantheon at Paris,	355	Idem.

BOOK XCV.

EUROPE.—INTRODUCTION.

Climate.—Distribution of Animals and Plants.

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Prejudices concerning climate.

THE inhabitants in different parts of Europe boast of their genial climate, the rich produce of their fields, and are sometimes vain enough to suppose that an intellectual superiority is in a certain degree the result of these natural blessings. The Spaniard sits under the shade of his olive tree, and is thankful that his country is rich in oil. The Frenchman talks with contempt of the beer-drinkers in Germany, and insists gravely that the mists in England have some effect on the moral character of the people. A learned Greek, extolling the pure sky and the fine figs of Attica, insinuates that a clouded atmosphere and coarse fare have impaired the intellectual acuteness of the *Ultramontanes*. Travellers may have spread more correct notions on such subjects among the higher classes, but many errors still exist, which they have been unable to eradicate. We conceive with difficulty the beneficial results attending an order of events different from that which we are accustomed to observe. It may perhaps be unnecessary to cite the example of a Sicilian baron, who told an Englishman that there could be no oxen in his country, since grass never grew in England on account of the extreme cold. But some well-informed persons cannot easily comprehend that each European climate has its advantages. The Itali-

an, shivering at the mere mention of a temperature which freezes rivers and the arms of seas, doubts the description which the Dane gives of the incomparable verdure of the forests that limit the Sound. We ourselves have lately seen two French travellers, who, having unfortunately observed the uncultivated state of some Italian districts, condemned the whole region to the south of the Alps, its climate, its edifices, and even its women.

False notions of the learned.

Physicians, in the innumerable dissertations on their science, have applied to all the regions of the earth, some local aphorisms of Hippocrates, applicable only to Greece, Asia Minor, and a few adjacent countries. The natural philosopher discovers general laws to account for phenomena which can only be explained under certain modifications. The more numerous relations are rejected, because, not having been sufficiently observed, they cannot be submitted to calculation. Thus a needless erudition, and a premature science, ill adapted to illustrate the true theory of European climates, have added to the mass of popular errors. The peninsular climate of Europe is subject to many more exceptions than any other on our globe. The distribution of solar heat is certainly the chief cause of the difference in European climates; but if that cause existed only, England must have been as cold as Poland, and France as Germany. A rapid progression of heat must have commenced at the forty-fifth degree of latitude, and its effects must have been felt at Constantinople, and at Rome. But astronomical climates are modified in our part of the world by three leading physical causes. Europe, throughout a space equal to almost the whole of its breadth, is contiguous on the east to Northern Asia, which, from the elevation of its central ridge, and other causes already indicated in this work, is as cold as North America. That frigid temperature must have been communicated to Europe, had our continent, like that of America, been attached to the polar regions. The same consequence must have followed, had there been on the south lofty mountains, or a table land like that of Thibet. But, as it is, the cold air

Causes of the European climates.

Modified by Asia.

East winds.

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of Siberia is wafted by a continued east or north-east wind across the vast plains of Russia and Poland. Italy is sheltered from these sudden changes of temperature by the Alps and Appenines; and in all the countries that are protected from them, the climate is less rigorous; thus the vine flourishes in Bohemia, and in Upper Hungary. That single cause produces remarkable effects even in the north, the climate of Christiana in Norway is rendered milder than that of Berlin or Warsaw, and much more so than that of Petersburgh. No barrier interrupts the east wind's course on all the plains of eastern Europe; and for that reason, one half of our continent is much colder than the western regions under the same parallels. Greece, although protected by Mount Hemus, is sometimes exposed to the winds of Scythia, hence the great inequalities in the winters and summers in that country, compared with those of Italy.

Modified by Africa.

If the cold of our climates is rendered more intense by the winds of Asia, the opposite effect is produced by those of Africa. South and south-east winds, which warm the shores of southern Europe, arrive from the burning deserts of the immense Sahara, and the arid rocks of Nubia and Egypt; these sultry blasts might be still more oppressive, were they not tempered during their passage by the exhalations which rise from the Mediterranean. The plague of Athens, according to Hippocrates, was produced by a south wind; the *sirocco* which advances sometimes to the foot of the Alps, diffuses in these regions its baneful influence. The great projection formed by northern Africa, from which the numerous chains of Mount Atlas rise, destroys partly the influence of the winds from the Sahara; these winds, refreshed and cooled, are changed into zephyrs on the western coasts of Italy. But Spain, from its vicinity to the African continent, and particularly to the desert which separates the states of Algiers from Morocco, is exposed to the *Solano*, a sultry and unwholesome wind; the short range of the Sierra Nevada affords only shelter to some vallies. We may conclude that the African winds, although broken and modified by the interposition of seas

South winds.

and mountains, warm and dry the whole mass of the European atmosphere in the southern portion of our peninsula. If the Mediterranean were broader, or the range of Mount Atlas higher, and the snows which cover them more durable, the coasts of Greece, Italy, and Spain would be obscured by mists and rain, but the trees might then be clad with a thicker foliage, and the plants adorned with a fresher verdure. If, on the other hand, Africa were nearer our shores, or the chain connected with Mount Atlas, lower, the southern regions of Europe might be compared to Persia, a country in which the cold of the north is almost contiguous to the oppressive heat of the south, because the chill winds from the ridge of central Asia encounter the sultry blasts from the deserts of Arabia.

Oceanic influence.

The third leading cause which modifies our climate is the vicinity of the Atlantic and Northern Oceans. The continual motion of that immense collection of water along the western coasts of Europe, prevents the ice of the Polar seas from obstructing or even approaching these shores. Two facts may enable us to appreciate this advantage. Newfoundland, at the 50th degree of latitude, is surrounded with ice, or covered with hoar-frost. The climate of Ireland, Cornwall, and the rest of Great Britain, although humid, is temperate. The gulfs of Norway, at ten or fifteen degrees higher, are almost always open; the coast of Greenland, exactly opposite these gulfs, is frequently rendered inaccessible by barriers of fixed or floating ice. That movement of the waters ceases beyond Cape North, or is modified by local positions as yet imperfectly known; and the seas in that part of Europe are blocked with ice.

Conflict between the maritime and continental winds.

The atmosphere above the surface of the Atlantic ocean is subject to regular movements, which modify the climate of Europe in two different ways. While it retains the cold temperature of winter, it is often attracted to the European continent, and fills the space of an atmosphere rarefied by heat. These changes happen frequently during our premature springs, and that sort of atmospheric tide

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is the general cause of those returns of winter, disagreeable to man and hurtful to plants, but common to the whole of western Europe, particularly to the north-west of France, Holland, and Denmark. If, after such a *flux* of the frigid and moist atmosphere of the ocean, a dry and cold east wind arrives from northern Asia and Russia, we experience that rude temperature, the frequent recurrence of which, in the time of our ancestors the Celts and Germans, was partly owing to the uncultivated state of their countries. Russia and Poland are now better cultivated and reflect a greater quantity of heat; the east winds are probably milder; but as many of the forests in France, Germany, and England, have been destroyed, the same obstacles for the last four or five centuries have not been exposed to the course both of the east and the west winds. Thus it may be shown that the climate of the countries situated between the Pyrenees and the Dofrines has become warmer, but at the same time more variable. We are also enabled to explain why the vine, a plant that cannot resist the sudden changes of climate, was cultivated during the twelfth and even fifteenth century, in Lusatia and England; and by the care and patience of the monks succeeded at least to their satisfaction in sheltered spots, of which the temperature was then more regular. In the same places at present, the grape never arrives at maturity. Other plants, better adapted for our climates and the sudden changes of the spring, have been cultivated in later ages in the northern countries of Europe.

Insular climates.

The influence of the oceanic atmosphere varies in its intensity and character according to the latitudes. The same wind is salutary and agreeable in Portugal, and accumulates in some narrow Norwegian gulfs a dense and unwholesome air. The British islands, wholly exposed to the climate of the ocean, are liable in a less degree to the sudden effects of the great conflict between the maritime and continental winds; their temperature, always variable, is never subject to excessive heat or extreme cold.

South-west winds.

The atmosphere of the Atlantic ocean, after it loses its wintery temperature, is driven above the western coasts of Europe by south-west winds, the course of which may perhaps be attributed to certain modifications of a general movement in the air from the tropics to the poles; vapours then fall in refreshing showers, fertilize our fields, expand the germs of plants, and fill the air with an aromatic fragrance.

Succession of the spring.

The spring passes from south to north into western or *oceanic* Europe, but never quits wholly the shores of the Mediterranean. Its appearance in the north-east of Europe is fleeting and of short duration, hence result several differences in the great European divisions. The forests and gardens in the south retain always some degree of life, but we anticipate in vain that complete and rapid resuscitation of nature which takes place in northern latitudes. The western maritime countries possess in some degree both these advantages. The inland regions connected with Asia exhibit the horrors of winter, the stillness of frozen lakes, ever-verdant pines, and the repose of vegetation and nature.

European climates.

The three great European climates may be represented by a triangle, of which the three sides meet at Cape St. Vincent, Cape North, and at the north of the Caspian Sea. On the first side the temperature becomes lower in winter as we advance from south to north, and on the second it decreases with irregular variations as we approach eastwards; on the third it remains almost stationary as we pass from south to north. The summer's heat is subject to other general laws; in the north its intensity is augmented by the length of the day, and moderated on the oceanic side of the triangle by the temperature of the sea; it becomes oppressive on the Asiatic side, on account perhaps of the sudden transition from the severe cold of winter; lastly, it varies greatly on the side next the Mediterranean, according to the direction of winds or other local causes, and diminishes on the whole towards the east.

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To have a more detailed view of the causes which modify the climate of Europe, a heptagon may be substituted for the triangle. The first side may be drawn towards Africa, from Gibraltar to Crete; the second towards Taurus and Caucasus, from Crete to the sea of Azof; the third towards the Caspian and the deserts in its vicinity; the fourth to the Ural mountains and Siberia; the fifth to the Frozen Sea, from the Straits of Waygatz to Cape North; the sixth towards the northern part of the Atlantic Ocean, from Cape North to Ushant; and the seventh towards the central part of the Atlantic. This septenary division may be useful in classifying almost all the local influences which modify the continental climates, those of the islands must be considered apart. We believe that, from a careful examination of these figures, our climates may be better understood than from any classification or description.

Elevation of the sun.

Snow line.

These general phenomena depend on the movements of the atmosphere; but we have also to consider the effects occasioned by the elevation of the sun. Esmarck observed that in the north and north-east sides of the Dofrines, on which the solar rays fell obliquely, the snow line descended to 3000 feet above the level of the sea, while on the south and south-east sides, where the action of the solar rays was more direct, the snow line reached an elevation of 7000. Wahlenberg and De Buch calculated the limit of perpetual snow in the maritime part of Lapland at 3300. It does not fall so low in the interior of the country, but that circumstance must be attributed to local causes The cold winds that descend from the Dofrines render the winters of Jutland very severe, and influence also the climate of Sweden. The snow line varies between seven and eight thousand feet in Switzerland at the 46th degree of latitude. That country is colder from the great extent of its mountainous chain; in some ravines inacessible to the direct action of the solar light; perpetual ice is observed at 5000 feet above the level of the sea. The immense masses of ice with which these mountains are covered, fall sometimes on the vallies, and, by remaining on

them, occasion considerable variations in the temperature. But on the other hand, the force of the summer's heat destroys more rapidly the snows of winter, and the increase and diminution of ice are nearly the same from one year's end to another. The snow line commences in the Pyrenees at 8400 feet, and that elevation is lower than we might have supposed, from taking only into consideration the latitude of these mountains. Etna is always covered with snow at the height of 9000 feet, but it may be believed that islands and peninsulas being comparatively narrow and of small extent, emit a less quantity of heat.

Level of central Europe.

Other effects, occasioned by the height of European countries, may be shortly examined in this part of our work. A great part of central Europe, on the north and west of the Alps, descends by a continued inclination towards the Baltic, the North Sea, and the Atlantic Ocean. The natural effects attributed to the proximity of the pole are counterbalanced in the lowest level of the northern boundary of that inclined plane. Normandy is not much colder than Burgundy, and the winter in Denmark is not much longer than the same season in Bohemia. Hardy plants, the oak, the mountain ash, the lime, and different kinds of grain thrive in many countries in that part of Europe, although they are removed from each other by six or seven degrees of latitude. The descent from the Cevennes and the Alps towards the western basin of the Mediterranean and the Gulf of Venice is very rapid, and the level sinks as much in the space of one degree of latitude as it does in six or seven degrees on the other side. The traveller may walk on perpetual snow in the morning, and lie down in the evening among olives and myrtles. In the rapid transition from the climate of Lapland to that of Italy, we cannot expect to find a constant temperate zone, and consequently the vegetation of that zone in all its beauty. The trees of the north, on the southern sides of the Alps, do not form so magnificent forests as those in the northern plains. These remarks are only applicable to Germany, France, Lombardy, the Low Countries, and Denmark;

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the other transversal sections of Europe present a very different appearance. The level of ancient Poland is nearly uniform in the line formed by Memel, Pinsk, and Cherson. The climate on the shores of the Euxine sea and those of the Baltic ought to differ exactly in the ratio of their latitudes. But as the first is nearer the elevated land of Asia, it does not enjoy all the advantages that might otherwise result from its position. Another section of Europe, taken between the White and the Black Sea, by Archangel, Moscow, and Cherson, exhibits an immense plain, which rises gradually towards the centre; but it is not crowned by any range of hills, so that the cold in the centre increases with the elevation of the level, and extends freely in all directions. We observe a remarkable phenomenon in the section from Petersburgh to Astracan, in other words, the Caspian sea is lower by 150 feet than th Baltic and the ocean. That difference is too inconsiderabl to occasion any great change in the climate; still, however, the temperature in summer could not be so high at Astracan, were that town on the level of Moscow or Lemburg, and the intense cold which succeeds the warm weather could not be so severely felt in a low plain, and at the 46th degree of latitude, if these countries were sheltered by a chain of mountains on the north. Such are the principal sections which tend to modify the climate of Europe. The striking exceptions that the Greek, Spanish, and Scandinavian peninsulas present, shall be afterwards considered.

Level of the Sarmatian plains.

These causes which influence European climates explain sufficiently the principal phenomena that physical geographers have observed. M. de Humboldt has attempted to reduce them to geometrical formula in his method of *isothermal* lines, which indicate the mean temperatures of summer and of winter, and are therefore termed *isotherical* and *isohyemal*. That method so well adapted for the purposes of terrestrial physics, may probably, like all the others of that distinguished philosopher, be of great use in geography. But the application of it cannot as yet be

Isothermal lines.

attempted, for the method has not been fully explained by its celebrated inventor.[e] We shall cite, however, an example. The *isothermal* lines in the north and in the centre of Europe form curves which descend in the south as we advance eastwards, or in other words, the mean temperature of the places in the same latitude becomes lower towards the east. Thus,

Curvature of the isothermal lines in Europe.

Upsala is	4.5	Petersburg	3.0
Copenhagen	6.1	Moscow	3.6
Brussels	8.8	Prague	7.7
St. Malo	9.8	Vienna	8.2

The cause of the diminution of temperature in the two first instances must be ascribed to the proximity of Siberia and the higher lands in Tartary. In the others, the same cause is to be attributed to the higher level of Bohemia and Austria. Thus there is a disadvantage in the method of *isothermal* lines when applied to elementary geography, for it unites under one point of view results very different in their nature and causes; it abounds in apparent irregularities, of which the explication is not unfolded. Our remarks may be illustrated by another example. The mean temperature of Lisbon is 12, and that of Naples, which lies in a more eastern and northern situation, 13.5. This anomaly is easily accounted for, if it be recollected that Lisbon is influenced by the oceanic climate, and Naples by that of the Mediterranean; these two places, then, cannot, according to the new method, be contrasted with each other. The climates of Gibraltar, Malaga, Valencia, Palermo, Naples, Rome, Athens, Thessalonica, and Constantinople, may be compared, and if attention be paid to local causes, after all the requisite materials have been obtained to enable us to trace two isothermal lines between these points, we believe that they might form two very irregular curves. The method in the present state of our knowledge may be con-

[e] M. de Humboldt has given an outline of his theory in the transactions of the Society of Arcueil, but he intends to explain it more fully in a treatise on climatology.

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sidered an ingenious theory, which merits the attention of physical geographers, but it does not as yet afford a principle of classification applicable to the geography of climates.

Humidity of the atmosphere.

It remains for us to consider the humidity of the atmosphere, a subject not less important than that which has been last examined. M. Schow fixes at 25 inches the ordinary quantity of rain which falls annually in that part of Europe on the north of the Alps; the corresponding quantity on the south of these mountains is calculated at 35 inches; but it is very probable, if the snow be taken into consideration, that the equilibrium may be established, and that all the European atmospheres, in a period of three, or at most ten years, is subject to the same degree of humidity. It is true that the oceanic climate of Europe is sometimes, as in 1817, more than usually humid, a fact that must be attributed to the melting of the floating ice driven occasionally to the 45th degree of latitude. The climate of the Mediterranean, on the other hand, is, from long continued south winds, subject to great droughts; some plains in the Asiatic climates may be affected in the same manner by the dry winds from the deserts on the east of the Caspian; but these differences disappear in a period of no very great duration. M. Schow remarks, correctly, that the rain descends more slowly and uniformly in the countries to the north of the Alps than in those to the south; the torrents which burst suddenly from the cloud in that part of Europe recal to our mind the phenomena of the rainy season in the torrid zone. The number of rain days in the north may amount throughout the year to 150 or 160; those in the south do not exceed 90 or 100. If the days in which snow falls be added to the first number, the difference between the two climates might appear still more striking. It is on that account that the small gramineous plants in the north, which are fertilized by frequent and gentle showers, have so rich a verdure, the absence of which, in southern countries, the Italians confess that they regret. From the continuance of the vernal temperature

and other local causes, the leaves of the *Fagus sylvatica* have that pale emerald tint which the same plants lose in the south.

The steepness of the ground in many parts of southern Europe causes the rain, which descends in torrents, either to flow too rapidly or to remain stagnant; hence the number of fertile fields, naked rocks, and uncultivated marshes at the base of the Appenines, Olympus, and Parnassus. The lands in the north, though less fruitful, are at least more equally watered, and retain longer their strata of vegetable mould.

If the heat accumulated in the long days of summer, and the more regular distribution of rain be considered, it may be concluded that the countries in the north-west of Europe possess advantages relative to climate, equally great, though different from those in Italy and Greece.[d]

Salubrity of the air.

Europe is perhaps, on the whole, more healthy than any other portion of the earth. The fevers common in the marshes on the banks of the Don, in the Bannat of Temeswar, in the neighbourhood of Rome, and in the island of Walcheren, the pestilential vapours in some Sardinian valleys, and the unwholesome fogs near some Norwegian gulfs, are only local evils. Other epidemic diseases, such as the plague in Turkey, the yellow fever in Spain, and the *plica* in Poland, are not to be attributed to natural causes, but to the defects of governments or the habits of the people. We are unable, from our ignorance of medicine, to classify the prevailing diseases of Europe, according to the three great divisions of the eastern, western and southern climates. Such a subject might merit the attention of physicians; but it may, however, be affirmed, that in every part of Europe, men who lead a frugal life arrive sometimes to a very advanced age. Instances of this sort are as numerous on the mountains of Sicily as on those of Norway. The physical strength of the inhabitants in the north and

[d] Schow's comparison between the north and the south of Europe. Copenhagen, 1822.

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in the south of Europe, does not appear to us to vary in the ratio of climates, but according to the origin of different races.

Vegetation of the oceanic climate.

European plants are subject to the influence of three prevailing climates. The temperature of the north of Europe is not fatal to plants which perish under the same parallel in every other corresponding part of our globe; thus different kinds of grain, particularly barley and oats, are cultivated in Norway at the 70th degree; whilst in the opposite coasts of America, such cultivation ceases at the 52d. The other gramineous plants which cover the meadows of Europe, grow in the northern regions of America, but never appear in the same luxuriance.

Trees are never seen in every other part of the world at the 60th degree of latitude; in Europe the fir and the pine rise to a great height; and the tender beech which adorns the forests of Russian Poland at the 50th or 51st parallel, grows in greater perfection in Norway at the 59th. The Italian laurel thrives in the open air on the western coasts of France, and some vegetables, which were until lately believed to be confined to Portugal, have been transplanted on the hills in the neighbourhood of Plymouth. Many plants, however, require a warm and a dry climate; if we set out from the departments of Gironde or Cha[illegible] it may be observed that the vine succeeds in the inte[illegible] the Continent, or in that part of it which does not extend to the 50th degree.

Vegetation under the Asiatic climate.

Two distinct phenomena mark the influence of the Asiatic climate on the vegetation of Europe. The length of winter in the north and the centre of Russia, is fatal to several trees and plants which thrive under the same parallels in Germany and Scandinavia. To observe correctly the *Flora* of Denmark, Mecklenburg and Holstein, we must descend towards Kiow, Orel, and the Ukraine.[e] In these

[e] The Ornithogalum luteum et nutans, the Oenothera biennis, the Ranunculus lanuginosus, the Cytisus laburnum et nigricans, the Dianthus superbus, the Hyacinthus comosus, the Cornus sanguinea, the Cyperus fuscus, the Panicum sanguinale, the Festuca fluitans, the Pimpinella anisum, and the Brassica rapa

countries, the culture of wheat is certain, and the oak arrives at perfection. But on the other hand, the plants of the Scandinavian peninsula, and even of Lapland, are not unknown in Lithuania and in central Russia, under a parallel comparatively low; thus the lichen of Lapland is frequently seen in the plains at the 54th degree.

Such are the modifications produced by the Siberian climate. But the sandy and saline plains which bound Europe towards the Caspian sea, are influenced by the dry and sometimes burning winds that blow from the deserts which bound Bucharia on the north, and surround the ...ral lake. To that cause, and to the quality of the soil, ...ust be ascribed the absence of the European forests to...ards the Don, the Lower Wolga, and the Ufa. A scanty ...getation consisting of saline plants or lowly shrubs, ...vers these dismal plains. Effects of the Caspian climate.

The third side of the European triangle presents to the ...can climate a series of declivities, terminated on the ... by a very lofty chain of mountains. The vegetation ...hat part of Europe is confined to a range of coasts and to some peninsulas and islands in the south. The traveller who enters these regions for the first time, views with delight, landscapes that are never seen in the finest countries to the north of the Alps. The vine entwined round the elm, forests of olive, almond or fig trees, and the majestic symmetry of the cypress are the first indications of this genial climate. The scarlet flowers of the pomegranate, the elegant myrtle, and the fragrant exhalations of oranges, obscured under a dark green foliage, convince the stranger that he is in the garden of Europe. Other differences, though less striking, cannot escape his observation; the gladiolus, the varied coloured convolvulus, and the narcis...s are seen in the fields, and the banks of streams are sheltered by groves of the rose laurel. The cistus grows on Vegetation of the *Mediterranean* climate.

and arvensis are the species which establish a remarkable resemblance between the plants of Denmark, Volhynia, the Lesser Russia, and the banks of the Don. This analogy is perhaps to be attributed, in some respects, to the migrations of the Goths.

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the sides of calcareous hills, and the acanthus among the ruins of ancient buildings. The botanist observes species of plants wholly unknown in more northern countries, as the *psoralea*, the *cercis*, and the *biscerrula*. Different families abound in a greater variety of species, as the aristolochia and the malva; others, as the medicago and anthyllis, attain to a greater height than they ever reach in the north. Some of the grasses and seeds exhibit a new character; the flowers of the *Canna saccharina*, of the *Lygeum spartum*, and *Lagurus ovatus*, display the bright hues of the tropics. The *Arunda donax* is almost equal in height to the bamboo; the *chamoerops* may give a faint idea of the lofty palm.

The plants nearer the mountains which limit the horizon on the south resemble those of central Europe; and from the elevation of the soil, they may be compared to the productions of northern countries. The ultramontane blasts strip many Italian trees of their foliage, but the shores of the sea are covered with verdant plants, as the laurel, the myrtle, the rosemary, the holm oak and the lentisk.

Difference between the vegetation of the west and east.

As we advance southwards to the plains of Sicily or Andalusia, the vegetation assumes an African character; the stiff foliage of the aloe appears on the massy trunk of the Indian fig tree, and in some fields the slender date tree is seen waving in the air. But, in Greece, the atmosphere is cooled by the winds which descend from Hemus and Taurus, and the European vegetation is modified by that of Asia or rather Caucasus. The eastern plane, the sycamore, and the cedar are common to the European and Asiatic shores of the Archipelago; and the linden, the oak, and the beach, seem to connect the German and Carpathian forests with those of Caucasus, which are separated from the woods of Russia by the naked plains on the Don and the lower Dneiper. The interior ridge of Thrace is not, perhaps, widely different as to its vegetation from Moravia; and, according to modern botanists, for every plant in the Greek *Flora* that is common to Italy, three are common to Scandinavia. The orange and the olive

trees thrive in some sheltered spots under the rocks of Taurida, on the north of the Black Sea, and in a latitude higher than that of Lombardy.

These are some of the causes which characterize the vegetation on the three sides of Europe; other causes, that depend on the nature of the ground, and its elevation, are now to be considered. The influences which particular soils may have on vegetation, can, in the present state of chemistry and geology, be very imperfectly determined. Such influences are modified by too many mechanical causes, or by others wholly unconnected with them. The effects of the elevation of the soil may be more easily ascertained.

Levels of vegetation.

Forests of birch trees grow in Norway under the polar circle, at an elevation of 1483 feet. The willow, or *Salix lanigera*, reaches nearly to the snow line, and the birch is only removed from it by a distance equal to 924 feet. In southern Norway, different firs thrive at the height of 3000 feet above the level of the sea, and several kinds of apples ripen at 1000. Some vallies exposed to the sun are cultivated at the height of 1800 feet.

Cultivation is not continued in the Sudetes above 3300 feet; the forests in the Carpathian mountains terminate at 4200, but the *Pinus pumilio* grows at the height of 5000. There exists probably a wide difference between the northern side, which fronts Russia, and the eastern opposite the Euxine Sea, and the southern above the Hungarian plains; but these differences have not as yet been sufficiently observed. The Alpine forests reach generally to an elevation of 5000 feet, the fir, 5500, and the green alder, 6120. Saussure observed the *Daphne cneorum* at 10,680, and Ramond found the same shrub on the highest summits of the Pyrenees. The heights in which these trees and plants flourish on the Italian side of the Alps are greater by 6 or 700 feet. The culture of grain ceases about the level of 7300, and that of the vine at 1700. The lofty trees of the Pyrenees are seldom seen beyond 6900, or at most 7200; the Scots fir grows 200

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feet above them. Few observations have hitherto been made in southern Spain and in Greece. The Sierra Nevada in particular, demands the attention of the naturalist from its elevation and its proximity to Africa. As to peninsular Greece, we are assured that the tops of the highest mountains are covered with fine trees, but no inference can be derived from that fact, for the height of these mountains is still unknown.

Grain.

The same subject may be considered in a different point of view, or in its relation to the culture of trees and plants necessary for the subsistence of man, or useful in the employment of his industry. These plants are commonly found in plains, or countries of mean elevation; the different kinds of grain which have contributed so much to our civilization, ripen in the whole of Europe. *Secale*[f] grows in Finland at the 64th degree of latitude, but yields more abundant harvests under a lower parallel. Wheat is cultivated at the 62d degree, but thrives between the 36th and 50th; its ears are ten or twelve times larger in Calabria than in Germany. Maize, which has been brought to our continent from America, succeeds at the 50th degree; and rice, which was originally imported from Asia, grows at the 47th. The potato, first introduced in the year 1620, is now spread over the whole of the European peninsula.

The vine.

We have already spoken of the vine and the causes which have retarded its culture. At the 45th degree it flourishes in every exposure onwards to the 50th; it decays in the neighbourhood of the north sea, and thrives in inland countries, if their climate be not subject to great variations. It is cultivated above the 50th parallel in Saxony and Bohemia, but that anomaly is owing to the great uniformity of the temperature; its fruits, not sufficiently warmed by the solar rays, are comparatively acid.

Hops.

Extensive plantations of hops are observed beyond the regions of the vine; they cover a very large tract of land between the 50th and 60th degree of latitude.

[f] Rye.

Thus from the distribution of the alimentary plants which we have mentioned, some inferences may be derived concerning the different kinds of food consumed by the people in Europe. A line consisting of several curves, drawn from the south of England across French Flanders, Hesse, Bohemia, the Carpathian mountains, Odessa, and the Crimea, marks nearly the limits between the countries in which wine or beer is generally drunk. To the south of the same line bread is commonly made of wheat; but rye is substituted in the north, and in some southern but mountainous regions.

Wine and beer.

The countries in which oil or butter is used, may be separated by another line extending along the Pyrenees, the Cevennes, the Alps and Mount Hemus. On the one side the pasturage is better, cattle abound, and a greater quantity of the food which they supply is consumed. If there be a great difference in the physical qualities of the man who lives habitually on animal food, beer, milk or butter, and another whose ordinary diet consists of bread, wine and meats dressed with oil, it must be confessed that the contrast is only obvious between the inhabitants of widely distant countries, as the Spaniard and Italian on one side, and the Swede and the Russian on the other. As to the intermediate states, the effects of different diet are not easily discovered. Wine is common in Normandy, but the Norman eats as much as the Englishman, and the Bavarian consumes more beer than his neighbour in Suabia. The food of the lower orders has been much changed by the introduction of the potato; and the great consumption of tea in England has perhaps diminished that of beer even among the common people. The higher classes live almost everywhere in the same manner, and elude the effects of climate by obtaining the produce of every land. Many conclusions which have been deduced from the different kinds of food used in European countries, appear to us unsatisfactory or erroneous.[g]

Oil and butter.

[g] Bonstetten, L' Homme du Nord et du Midi.

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Fruit trees.

The cherry and the plum resist the severity of northern climates; the first ripens near Trondheim in Norway, and Jacobstadt in Finland at the 63d degree; it is seldom seen in Russia beyond the 60th, becomes rare in Italy, and grows only in the mountains of Sicily. The apple flourishes and ripens at the 55th degree, but in more northern latitudes it hardens suddenly, and never arrives at maturity; if, on the contrary, it be transplanted on the southern confines of Europe, it loses its flavour and agreeable taste. The gooseberry and other fruit-bearing shrubs succeed rarely in the south. The apricot and the peach have been cultivated with great advantage at the 50th parallel; these fruits are indigenous to the mountains of Armenia and the cold provinces of Persia. The fig ripens beyond the 50th degree, but the countries best adapted for it are those in the southern extremities of Europe. Although the olive resists the severe winters and cold winds of the Alps, the decay or frequent destruction of the plantations beyond the 44th degree, shows clearly that the best region for it is that near the shores of the Mediterranean, below the elevation of 1200 or 2000 feet. In like manner the country of the orange does not extend beyond 43 degrees and a half, and commences in Tuscany or at the Hieres. The olive plantations near San Remo, and in some northern districts, like the date trees in the neighbourhood of Bordighiera, may be considered local exceptions, accounted for by the shelter that these plants receive from the Appenines. The palm, the cactus, the aloe, and some other plants indigenous to the two Indies, succeed near Lisbon, in Andalusia, and in Sicily below the 40th degree. The sugar-cane has never been cultivated in Europe beyond the same parallel; it is not long since much labour was bestowed on it in Grenada, Majorca, and Sicily.

Lint and hemp.

Two very useful plants, lint and hemp, may be raised throughout the greater part of Europe; the first thrives best in northern climates and its culture extends to Finland; but it is seldom observed in Ostrobothnia or in Rus-

sia beyond Kostroma and Jurostan; the second flourishes in Poland, the Russian Ukraine, Alsace, Valencia, and Calabria. Cotton grows in the south of Europe, but does not yield such harvests as in America and India.

Trees and shrubs.

We have considered, in our account of the three European climates, the general distribution of trees and plants. The fir or *Pinus abies* is found in the whole of Europe within the sixty-seventh parallel; the loftiest trees grow in the north. The sandy shores of the south are covered from the forty-sixth degree with the sea pine and the *Pinus pinea*, the latter grows to a great height and forms extensive forests on the Alps, the Pyrenees and the banks of the Tagus. The wild pine is scattered throughout most countries in Europe below the sixty-eighth parallel; the Scots fir or *Pinus picea* is seldom seen beyond the sixtieth degree. The common oak does not grow in Dalecarlia, and never arrives at its ordinary height in Finland under the sixty-second parallel, it decays, on the other hand, in the southern extremities of Europe; the *Esculus* of Pliny supplies its place in these regions, and adorns the picturesque scenery of the south. The *Suber* extends across Portugal, Spain and Italy. The beach ceases near the sixtieth degree, the lime near the sixty-third; and both are found in great perfection towards the south of the Baltic, and on the islands in that sea. The ash, the alder, the mountain ash, the black and white poplars never arrive beyond the sixtieth and sixty-first parallels.

The *Populus tremula* or the aspen tree, and the birch extend beyond the verge of the Arctic circle, and enliven the solitary regions of Lapland. The sorb and different kinds of willow thrive in the most northern districts; the light seeds of the larch are driven by the wind, and take root near the line of perpetual snow. It is a remarkable fact that the large elder tree cannot resist the climate above the fifty-seventh parallel, while the delicate lilach displays its fragrant flowers on the banks of the Neva, and among the dismal rocks near Fahlun in Dalecarlia. The same plant, according to Haller, exists in a wild

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state in Switzerland, and is considered indigenous to Europe.

Changes produced by culture.

Much care has been bestowed in the north on some trees of the south; but with all the aid of culture their progress has been slow. The Italian poplar reaches but a little way beyond the latitude of Denmark. The eastern plane, and the maple tree, which arrive at such perfection in Greece, degenerate in the north of the Alps. The *Fraxinus mammifera* appears in great beauty in Calabria, but does not succeed beyond the forty-fourth degree. The same latitude may be considered the natural limit of the laurel, the myrtle, the mastich, the cypress, the terebinthine and box trees, all of them flourish best in the neighbourhood of the Mediterranean. The laurel, the olive, and the vine were introduced by Greek colonists into the Crimea.

The uncultivated districts of the south, particularly those below the fortieth parallel, are covered with thyme, rosemary, jessamine and other odoriferous shrubs, but the caper bush is almost the only one which bears fruit. The rocks and marshes of the north, or those in particular above the sixtieth parallel, are covered with many fruit shrubs, as the currant bush, the *Vitis idæa*, the *Myrtillus*, and the *Rubus chamæmorus*.

Animals.

The animal kingdom in Europe is still less varied than the vegetable. The same animals may be considered common to the southern and north-east regions of our continent. The white bear and the blue fox appear from time to time on the shores of the frozen sea. The rein-deer is found at the sixty-first parallel in Scandinavia, and six or seven degrees lower in Russia. The *Marinata lemnus* or lemming continues its migrations in straight lines from east to west, between the fifty-fifth and sixty-fifth parallels; the glutton is observed in the same region. The elk is generally found below the polar circle; it frequents Lithuania and even some parts of Prussia. The Arabian sheep, which is common to the same countries, is distinguished by the form of its horns and the coarseness of its wool.

The naked plains that bound the sea of Azoph and the Caspian are frequented by some animals common to Asia. The Bactrian camel pastures in these lands, rich in saline herbs; the Circassian sheep are observed near the Oca and the Dneiper. The Tartars have brought to that part of Europe their fleet horses, and the fierce jackal has migrated thither in quest of prey.

In the central countries of Europe.

The strongest horses and oxen are found in the great and verdant plains which extend from the Ukraine and Moldavia to Denmark and Flanders. These animals have probably existed a long time in a wild state. The *urus* or the our-ochs, (words which signify literally ancient or primitive oxen,) are still occasionally seen in Poland. We observe in these regions, and in the whole of central Europe, a breed of sheep originally the same as that in Spain and in England, but it has been improved in different countries by natural or artificial causes. The ass, which cannot be considered indigenous to the mean European zone, has been brought to it, and has degenerated.

In the Alps, &c.

The wild goat, the chamois and the marmot frequent the great mountainous chains of Europe, the Alps, the Pyrenees, the Cevennes, the Carpathians and Hemus.

In the south.

The animals that are found in the mean zone are for the most part common to the south. The ox and the horse in Italy, if they be well fed, are as stout as any in the Ukraine or in Holstein. The Arab horse was brought into the south during the invasions of the Moors and the Turks; and from it, have perhaps sprung the Andalusian and other varieties; but it is not unlikely, from observations which we have made, that the Andalusian breed is the same as the *norbagge* or small Norwegian horse; and consequently, that both of them are descended from a common stock, and one in all probability indigenous to Europe. It is still less doubtful that the buffalo, an animal not found in the north of Hungary, has been imported from Asia to southern Europe. A particular species of sheep in Sardinia, and the strepsiceros in Candia, are supposed to be indigenous to Europe. If the ass in the southern

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part of the Continent be not so too, it has been introduced from Asia Minor and Syria.

Table of European Sections.

Sections.	Countries included.	Physical Characters.
I. CENTRAL URALIAN REGION. Lat. 51–61. Lon. 67–76.	The east of European Russia, including the Uralian mountains and their branches between 51° and 61°. The basins of the Kama, the Viatka, the Ufa, and the Beilaia. The mountainous districts on the basin of the Uralsk, (western part) as far as the borders of the Caspian steppes; lastly, the eastern bank of the Wolga from the Unscha to the neighbourhood of Saratow. See Sections II. VI. VII.	Elevation of the mountains from 6 to 8000 feet. Level of the Wolga near Kasan 580 feet. Frosty east wind. South wind chill on the mountains, hot and dry on the plains. Mean temperature at Solikamski 1.85. Mercury is often malleable at Catherinburg at two leagues beyond the Ural. Snow remains six months on the ground at Perm; two months without frost. Heat and extreme drought at Orenburg. The grain and leguminous plants are often frozen near Orenburg. Rein-deer grain in the vallies; nut trees on the Kama.
II. MARITIME URALIAN SECTION. Lat. 59–70. Lon. 55–80.	The north-east of European Russia to the east of the Onega, Scheksna, and the Wolga, including the basins of the Dwina, the Suchona, the Witscheda, the Mezen, the Petchora, the Ousa, and the western sides of the Ural mountains from the 61st degree of latitude. See Sections I. III. and VI.	The Uralian mountains become gradually lower. Ice on the banks of rivers to the 1st of June. Thunder very rare. Variations of wind and temperature. Mean temperature. Mercury is often malleable at Usting-Welecki. The Dwina is frozen from the 1st of November to the 1st of May. Agriculture ceases about the 60th degree. Rein-deer. Fruit shrubs in great numbers. Pine trees cease at 61° or 62°.
III. LAKES. Lat. 56–66. Lon. 49–55.	Finland, governments of Petersburg, Olonetz, Novogorod, Plescow, Livonia and Esthonia.	PLAINS INTERSECTED BY SMALL CHAINS OF ROCKS. Mean temperatnre + 4 Petersburg + 3.8 Umeo . + 0.7 Abo + 4.8 (Reaumur.) Greatest cold at Petersburg — 24.5.

Table continued.

Sections.	Countries included.	Physical Characters.
III. LAKES, *continued.*	Lands on the south-east; the ridge of Waldai, and different mountains on the north-east, the river Onega. See Sections II. IV. and VI.	Frosty weather, 112 days in the year. No snow, 60 days. Rye, barley, &c. throughout the coasts on the Baltic; they do not always ripen in the interior towards Olonetz at the 61°. Wheat ripens frequently at the 60° in Finland.
IV. LAPLAND. Lat. 64—72. Lon. 32—58.	Mountainous regions of Lapland. Western Bothnia to the river Umea. Nordland of Norway. Norwegian and Russian Lapland as far as the shortest line between the Gulf of Bothnia and the White Sea. See Sections III. and VII.	The mountains of Norway become lower at the 67°. Maritime chain of Lapland, elevation from 3000 to 4000 feet. The other ridge, from 2000 to 2300 feet. Many lakes continue frozen to the month of June. The frost ceases on the Gulfs of the North Sea about the 10th of May. Mean temperature at Cape North, 0.0. At Wadsæ (towards the north-east,) 0.77. At Enontekies, + 2.8. Mean temperature during the summer at Cape North, + 6.3; at Enontekies, + 12.7. Barley and oats cultivated in some districts. Pines and firs to the 67°. Reindeer, fruit shrubs.
V. SCANDINAVIAN. Lat. 55–66. Lon. 23–37.	Scandinavian peninsula to the south of a line drawn from the island of Donnæ. SUBDIVISIONS. High country or Norway. Sweden to the north of the lakes Vener, &c. Gothland or Sweden to the south of the lakes. See sections IV. and X.	Mountains, 8000 feet. Base, 3000 Direction, south and south east. Mean temperature at Stockholm, + 5°.7; at Christiana, + 6°; at Trondheim, + 4. 4. Wet and cold climate of the ocean: lowest temperature at Bergen, — 12°. Idem. Serene but stormy on the Baltic; lowest temperature at Upsal, — 22°. Grain cultivated throughout the whole section. Fruit trees rare above the 60°. Pine and fir forests to the 66°. Oaks near the 60°.

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Table continued.

Sections.	Countries included.	Physical Characters.
VI. CENTRAL RUSSIA. Lat. 50–60. Lon. 50–67.	Higher districts on the basins of the Dneiper and the Don. All the basins of the Occa and its tributary streams. The western basin of the Wolga, those of the Mologa and Sura to Saratow. Limits on the west, the Beresina and the Dneiper; on the south, the steep lands from the falls of the Dneiper to Tzaritzin. See Sections I. II. III. VII. VIII. and IX.	Elevated ridge of *Waldai* from 1000 to 1250 feet. Open country. Mean temperature, + 4 to 5. Thermometer below zero during 177 days in the year; 179 at Moscow. Mercury was malleable 3d of February, 1803, at Saratow. The Wolga, near Nischogorod, freezes the 25th of November, and continues frozen till the 25th of April. Idem, near Kasan, from the 1st of November to the 25th of April. The Oka freezes near Orel the 25th of November, and continues so until the 20th of March. Rye, barley, &c. Apple and pear trees at the 55°.
VII. SCYTHIAN PLAINS. Lat. 51—43. Lon. 40—70.	The plain which extends between the base of the Ural Mountains and Caucasus, watered by the lower Wolga, the Kuma, and the Manytch. The same plain forms the lower part of the basins of the Don, the Donetz, and the Dneiper. SUBDIVISIONS. Caspian plain. Plain of Pontus. Taurida forms a separate region.	Sandy and argillaceous plains impregnated with salt, higher in the 2d subdivision. Mountains of Taurida, isolated in that section. The Wolga freezes during two months. Lowest temperature at Astrachan, — 23.7. (See Upsal.) Highest temperature, + 36. Lowest temperature at Odessa, — 31 in 1803. Mean temperature, (probably) + 7.5. The inundations of the Wolga do not fructify the soil. Trees and different kinds of grain become more rare as we advance eastwards. Fertile and oozy soil on the banks of rivers. Horses and oxen, the camel in the south.

Table continued.

Sections.	Countries included.	Physical Characters.
VIII. SARMATIAN PLAINS. Lat. 50–58. Lon. 21–82.	Silesia, the countries between the Oder and the Duna. Poland according to its present dimensions. Prussia and Lithuania as far as the division between the Vistula and the Niemen on one side, and the Dneiper and the Dneister on the other; beyond that line, the marshes of Polesia and the plains of Volhynia, Podolia, and Kiow, to the cataracts of the Dneiper. See Sections VI. VII. and XIII.	Sandy and argillaceous plain, wet and fertile. Level of the banks of the Vistula, (Warsaw) 588 feet. Ridge of eastern Prussia 600 feet. Division of the waters between the Black Sea and the Baltic, (a low plain.) Volhynia rises in a contrary direction, or in that of the Dneiper. Numerous rivers towards the Black Sea. Mean temperature at Warsaw + 9.2: at Wilna + 8.7. Lowest temperature at Warsaw — 15.9. Forests of oak and pine trees as far as the coasts of the Baltic. Many small lakes near the Baltic, within twenty leagues of its shores. Commencement of the vine. Grain. Horses and oxen.
IX. CIMBRO-GERMANIC PLAINS. Lat. $50\frac{1}{2}$–$57\frac{1}{2}$. Lon. 19—32.	The basin of the Rhine from Coblentz, Lower Belgium, Holland, the whole of Northern Germany, to the north of the Hartz Mountains, the countries between the Elbe and the Oder, Jutland and the Danish islands on the Baltic.	Argillaceous plains. Heights of 1200 feet in Jutland, of 600 in Mecklenburgh. Every kind of grain. The forests extend to five or ten leagues from the German Sea. Prevailing north-west winds hurtful to vegetation. Mean temperature at Brussels, + 10.5; at the Hague, 9.8; at Berlin, 8.2; at Copenhagen, 7.°6. Low temperature common at Brussels, — 10.1; at Franecker, — 24; at Berlin, — 12.6; at Copenhagen, 11.9.
X. BRITISH ISLANDS. Lat. 40—61. Lon. 7—$19\frac{1}{2}$.	SUBDIVISIONS. Plain of England. Cambrian mountains.	Mountains above 4000 feet in the north-west. Calcareous plains in the south. Lakes in Scotland. *Bogs* in Ireland.

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Table continued.

Section.	Countries included.	Physical Characters.
BRITISH ISLANDS *continued.*	Caledonian mountains. Ireland. The Faroe Islands at 62° lat. may be included.	Mean temperature at London, + 10.2; (Reaumur,) at Dublin, + 9.5; at Edinburgh, + 8.8. Climate everywhere variable; humid and mild in Ireland; uncertain winters. Grain and forests as in section IX. towards the north; towards the south as section XIV.
XI. HERCYNIO-CARPATHIAN REGION. Lat. 46—52. Lon. 25—44.	The mountains and ridges of Westerwald opposite Coblentz; those of Hesse, Thuringia, Franconia, Electoral Saxony; the Sudetes, Upper Silesia, Moravia, the Carpathians, and a part of Galicia, Upper Hungary and Transylvania. SUBDIVISIONS. 1. *Hercynian region,* the mountainous countries of Franconia, Hartz, &c. 2. The Sudetes, Bohemia, Moravia. 3. The Carpathians, Upper Hungary. 4. Dacian mountains or Transylvania.	Elevation of the Sudetes above 5000 feet. Carpathian, 8000 Dacian Alps, 9000 Ridges of Saxony, 600 feet; of Bohemia, 1200; of Hungary and Transylvania, 1900. Forests, numerous rivers, few lakes. Low temperature at Lemberg from —22 to 28; at Prague, —17.2, (Reaumur.) Temperature of Prague, + 9.7. The vine grows in favourable exposures to the 51° lat. Oats, the only grain on the Carpathians. *Pinus cembra* et *pumilio* grow at a greater height on the same mountains than any other shrubs.
XII. PLAINS ON THE DANUBE. Lat. 48½—43. Lon. 34—47.	Lower Austria, almost the whole of Hungary, part of Bosnia and Servia, Bulgaria, Walachia, Moldavia, Bessarabia. SUBDIVISIONS. 1. Central plains on the Danube. 2. Plains on the lower Danube. 3. Hills on the southern declivities of the Carpathians. 4. Id. on the northern *of Hemus.*	Branches of the Alps and Carpathians in the first sub-division. Two narrow vallies or passes, the first to the north of Buda, the second near Orsova. Elevation of Vienna, 478 feet, of Semlin, 290. Immense marshes on the Danube. Mean temperature of Vienna, + 10.3; of Buda, 10.3; of Galatch in Moldavia, 8.9. Excessive heat in the plains of Hungary. Severe cold in Bosnia on the northern declivity. The lower Danube continues frozen

Table continued.

Section.	Countries included.	Physical Characters.
XII. PLAINS ON THE DANUBE, *continued.*	5. Id. on the eastern of the Dacian mountains. See Sec. VII. XI. XIII.	a long time. Vines, wheat on the hills, rice, and buffaloes on the lower part of the 2d and 3d sub-divisions.
XIII. ALPS. Lat. 43–49. Lon. 20–34.	1. Alps, higher vallies, as Savoy, the Valais, Uri, the Grisons, Tyrol, &c. 2. Sub-Alps of Germany on the north, Berne, Zurich, Upper Swabia, Bavaria, Upper Austria, Stiria. 3. Sub-Alps of Italy on the south-east. All the valley of the Po, of the Adige, and the Piave, &c. 4. Sub-Alps of France, or of the south-west, the basins of the Saone, the Rhone, the Durance, the Garule, the Herault, &c.	Elevation of the mountains from 10,000 to upwards of 15,000 feet. Ridges of Bavaria, Suabia, from 1200 to 1500 feet; of Piemont, 1000 feet, of Vienne, *idem*. Plain of Lombardy 200 feet. Numerous lakes on the north west and south-east of the Alps. Mean temperature of the Alpine regions at Berne, + 9.4; Zurich, + 8.8; Geneva, 9.6. *Idem* of the northern sub-Alps, at Ratisbon, 8.9. *Idem* of the western sub-Alps, at Dijon, 11.2; at Vienne, 12.3; at Marseilles, 15. *Idem* of the south-eastern at Milan, 13.2. The lagoons of Venice freeze rarely. Productions of all the European climates on the southern sides according to the levels. Flora of Lapland on the summits, palm trees near the sea shore. The sub-Alps of Germany are higher, and, being exposed on the north, lie without the region of the vine.
XIV. MARITIME FRANCE. Lat. 41½. Lon. 13–23.	Basins of the Seine, the Loire, and the Garonne, and all the secondary and intermediate rivers.	The summit of the section is an elevated ridge of 1200 or 1800 feet, crowned with mountains from 5000 to 6000 feet. The rest of the section consists of plains interspersed with hills; few lakes. Mean temperature at Paris, + 10.6; at Laon, + 8.5; at St. Malo, 12.3.; at Nantes, 12.6.; at Bourdeaux, 13.6; at Clermont, + 10. Mean temperature of the coldest month at Bourdeaux, + 5: at Nantes, + 3.9.; at Clermont, — 2.2. The vine passes beyond the 49°, but avoids the neighbourhood of the sea. Laurels near Brest. Wheat at an elevation of 3000 feet.

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Table continued.

Sections.	Countries included.	Physical Characters.
XV. SECTION OF MOUNT HEMUS AND THE ARCHIPELAGO Lat. 35–43. Lon. 35–46.	Mountains of Dalmatia, Macedonia, and Romania. Peninsulas and islands of Greece, including Crete.	Height of the mountains for the most part unknown. Snow falls sometimes in the midst of summer on Mount Hemus and in the island of Andros. East wind fresh and salubrious. South and south-east winds unwhole some in several place Olive and orange trees and myrtles to the south of Mount Hemus. Vines near the sea shore. Different climates in di ferent districts. Constantinople is place between Taurus and He mus, and the winter is col er there than at Venice.
XVI. APPENINES. Lat. 36–44½. Lon. 25–35.	The state of Genoa, Tuscany, the states of the Pope, Naples, Sicily, Malta, Sardinia, Corsica.	The northern and ea ern sides of the Appenin are much colder than t western and southern. Mean temperature Rome + 15, coldest monti + 5.7, nearly the same a at Montpelier. Excessiv heat occasioned by th sirocco. Unwholesome exh lations in Sardinia, th Pontine marshes, &c. Vine as in Section XV. Suga cane in Calabria and Sicily
XVII. SPANISH PENINSULA. Lat. 36–43½. Lon. 8–21.	Spain and Portugal. 1. Region of the Ebro. (Iberia.) 2. Idem of the Acterian mountain (Cantabria.) 3. Idem of the Douro, (Duriana.) 4. Idem of the central ridge, (Celtiberia.) 5. Idem of the lower Tagus, (Lusitania.) 6. Idem of the Guadalquiver, (Boetica.)	Mountains lower than the Alps. Eternal snow on Pyrenees, the Sierra Ne a da and Pentata, and sc mountains in Galic.a Humidity of the northern coasts. Dryness of the central ridge. Salubrity of Valencia and Murcia. Lowest temperature at the base of the Pyrenees — 6; at Madrid — 3; at Cadiz + 7. High temperature in the Asturias + 24; at Madrid + 27; at Cadiz + 31. Mean temperature at Lisbon + 16.5. The yellow fever does not ascend above the level of 600 feet.

Table of mean Temperatures according to the Centigrade Thermometer.

	Upsala.	Copenhagen.	London.	Paris.	Geneva.	Zurick.	Buda.	Rome.	Palermo.
January	—5.49	—1.54	+1.92	+2.99	+1.16	—3.17	—2.69	+7.18	+10.78
February	—2.98	—2.67	3.27	4.01	2.87	0.94	+0.65	8.18	10.78
March	—1.48	—1.11	5.95	6.14	5.86	4.51	+3.64	10.71	12.11
April	+4.54	+5.89	7.80	10.46	9.74	7.58	9.63	13.71	14.51
May	+9.55	11.63	11.95	13.60	16.75	15.30	18.37	18.11	17.71
June	14.54	16.80	15.16	16.64	17.06	16.35	20.19	21.58	20.48
July	17.07	18.30	16.66	17.98	17.72	18.68	21.82	23.18	22.38
August	15.75	16.68	16.46	17.56	14.70	18.43	22.01	22.88	23.18
September	10.97	14.28	13.54	15.10	10.85	14.14	16.77	20.07	21.57
October	6.03	8.65	9.09	10.03	18.01	9.60	11.01	16.77	19.77
November	0.08	3.28	4.99	6.18	5.03	3.58	4.69	12.07	15.57
December	—3.95	—1.20	2.57	2.77	2.22	—1.21	0.50	8.48	12.30
Winter	—4.14	—1.80	+2.58	+3.26	+2.08	—1.15	—0.85	+7.95	+11.31
Spring	+4.21	+5.47	8.57	10.07	9.78	+9.13	+10.55	14.18	14.78
Summer	15.79	17.26	16.09	17.39	17.16	17.82	21.34	22.55	22.02
Autumn	5.69	8.73	9.21	10.44	10.12	9.10	10.82	16.30	18.97
Annual	+5.39	+7.42	+9.12	+10.29	+9.79	+8.73	+10.45	+15.24	+16.77

BOOK XCVI.

EUROPE.—INTRODUCTION.

Remarks on the Political Geography of Europe—Nations, Languages, Religion, Political Divisions, Governments, Population, &c.

BOOK XCVI.

Origin of European states.

It is not our design to enter into discussions concerning the origin of European states; such a subject might require a separate work. Many learned and ingenious theories have been advanced on it; but all of them are involved in difficulties which cannot now be solved; the proofs on which they depend have long since perished. Some light may perhaps be thrown on these discussions in our accounts of particular countries, but it is sufficient at present to relate succinctly such facts as appear least liable to doubt.[h]

We must keep in view some principles that have been already stated in our observations on the history of geography. The names given to European states by the Greeks and the Romans are as vague and insignificant as the Indian names collected by European travellers, or the Mogul terms of the orientalists. Ancient languages are the only authentic sources by which we can expect to derive any knowledge on such subjects; the names of rivers and mountains may supply us with information, if the epochs at which these names were fixed can be ascertained. Bu

[h] The reader may examine the table at the end of this book.

it is vain to suppose that all the elements of civilization, or the movements of states, emanated from one common centre; the migrations of different people are not to be believed unless they be established by positive proofs, and even then, not beyond the limits which result from such evidence.* Population has not been much affected by the removal of Asiatic hordes, and different languages still less. The migrations of European states may be compared to the expeditions of conquering armies, by which dialects have been modified and different families or tribes raised into power. It is needless to seek in Asia or in Ethiopia the obscure origin of different nations, and to disregard facts better authenticated and within our reach. It may be shown that, about the time in which the ancient Greeks were making advances in civilization, its progress was not confined to their country, but extended almost over the whole of Europe, particularly among the Turdetani, the Celts, the Scandinavians, and the Etruscans. Many ancient nations, and more especially the Etruscans, the Thracians, and Scythians, consisted of ruling tribes, and under them were servile tribes or vassals, of which the origin was in many instances very different. The language of the priests, confined at first to the temples, was the means of forming and improving the barbarous dialects of ancient Europe; it is well known that the priests or sacerdotal tribes communicated with one another at great distances. In those ages, concerning which we can derive little information from history, there existed many small but powerful tribes or families, often at variance with each other, hostile or friendly according to their wants or caprice. Some monuments of that period are now inexplicable, as the relations between roots, nouns, and grammatical forms. These obscure data are not unworthy of attention; to explain them fully is a hopeless task.

European languages.

European languages may be divided into two great classes; the first consists of those which resemble one another, and have some affinity with the Sanscrit and Persic; the second comprises those in which such resemblance

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does not exist, or at all events is faint and indistinct. In the first class may be distinguished the Greek and partly the Latin, the Slavonic and its branches, the German and Scandinavian: in the second, the Finnic, the Celtic and the Basque or Biscayan. It is impossible to determine whether such radical differences are to be attributed to two different Asiatic invasions, or to two separate periods of civilization.

European people.

Ten distinct races exist still in Europe, but the most ancient are on the whole the least numerous; thus in a forest, the oldest trees perish, while the younger extend afar their wide spreading branches. The time may perhaps come when these ten races may be reduced to five or six.

Greeks.

The Greeks, of whom the Pelasgi were a very ancient branch, after having peopled with their colonists the most of the coasts on the Mediterranean, now exist only in some provinces of Turkey, chiefly in the Archipelago and the Peloponnesus. The modern Greek language is sprung from the ancient, although changed by slavery and misfortune, the barbarous Turks are not insensible to its beauties.

Albanians.

The Albanians are the descendants of the Illyrians, who mingled formerly with the Pelasgic Greeks, and at a later period with the modern; enough of their ancient language remains to enable us to discover its European character, and its connexion with the German and Sclavon[illegible]. No trace is left of the ancient people that are supposed [illegible] have inhabited Thrace and the countries adjacent to [illegible] Danube; they were probably composed of different ra[illegible] as the Phrygian, the Slavonic, the Celtic and the Pelasgi[illegible] perhaps too what is strictly called the Thracian langua[illegible] was the common source of the Phrygian, the Greek, th[illegible] Illyrian and even the Dacian or *Dake*. It is towards Thrace, Mount Hemus, and the Lower Danube, that we can discover the earliest origin of European states; but these indications disappear if we traverse Asia Minor, or travel by the north round the Euxine Sea.

The Turks, the modern rulers of the Greeks, belong to the same family as the Tartars, and are scattered throughout Russia from the Crimea to Kasan; one of their colonies is established in Lithuania. That people, foreign to Europe, or who only occupied in ancient times the Uralian confines, are now domiciled in our peninsula, and probably fixed in it for ages; they are incorporated with the Greek races, and with the ancient nations of Asia Minor and Thrace. The Turcomans, of whom a branch is settled in Macedonia, have preserved incorrupted their Asiatic origin. Turks.

Two great races have probably existed in the north-east of Europe for some thousand years. The vain Greeks and proud Romans despised the obscure names of Slavonians and Finns, (*Slavi* and *Finni*;)[1] but these populous tribes have occupied from the earliest dawn of history all the countries comprehended under the vague and chimerical names of Scythia and Sarmatia. Almost all the topographical names of these countries are derived from the Slavonic and Finnic; a very small number owe their origin to the short empires of the Scythians, the Sarmatians, the Ostrogoths, and the Huns, the successive conquerors and rulers of these immense plains. It is probable that a Scythian nation, sprung from the Medes, ruled over the Finns and Slavonians, who formed the agricultural and pastoral tribes. The Sarmatians, who appear to have been of Tartar descent, mixed with the Scythians and their vassals; the Huns were another horde of the same people; both the one and the other came from the banks of the Wolga and the shores of the Caspian Sea. It is certain that, at the time in which they appeared in these countries, the banks of the Vistula and the Dneiper were peopled by Slavonic and Finnic tribes. Nations indigenous to Europe, Slavonians and Finns.

[1] According to Jornandes and Procopius, the Slavi derived their name from Slava, a Sarmatian word, which signifies glory or renown. Thus the Slavi were the glorious or renowned; but the signification of Slavi has been strangely altered in the lapse of ages. The English word slave, is derived from Slavonian; the French, *esclave*, from Slavonian or *Esclavon*; and the Italian, *schiave*, from the same source.

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The Slavonic nations are divided, according to their dialects, into three branches; first, the eastern Slavi, including the Russians, a people descended from the Roxelans or Roxolani,[k] the Slavi and Scandinavians, the *Rousniacs* in Galicia, the Servians or Slavi on the Danube, the Sclavonians, the Croatians and others; secondly, the western Slavi or the Poles, Bohemians, Hungarian Slavi, and the Sorabs or Serbs of Lusatia; thirdly, the northern Slavi or the Venedes of the Romans, the Wends of the ancient Scandinavians, a very numerous tribe, earlier civilized, but at the same time earlier incorporated in different states than the other two. The same tribe comprehends the remains of the German Wendes or Polabes, the Obotrites and Rugians, long since confounded with their conquerors the Germans; it also includes the Pomeranians, the Kassubs, subdued by the Poles; the ancient Prussians or Prutzi, exterminated or reduced to disgraceful slavery by their Teutonic conquerors; and lastly, the Lithuanians, the only branch which has retained some traces of its ancient language, although mixed with the Scandinavian and Finnic.

Wallachians.

The Wallachians in the ancient Dacia and the adjacent countries, are the descendants of the Getæ, the Slavi and the Romans; their language resembles the Latin.

Bulgarians.

The Bulgarians are a Tartar tribe, that migrated from the neighbourhood of Kasan, and perhaps ruled over Finnic vassals; after having reached Mount Hemus, they mingled with the Slavi on the Danube and partly adopted their language.

Finns.

The Finns, whom Tacitus designates under the name of Fenni, and Strabo under that of Zoumi, wandered probably from time immemorial in the plains of eastern Europe. Some of their tribes having mixed with other nations, were included by the Greeks among the European Scythians. Their descendants were subdued and driven

[k] Ptolemy places the Roxolani on the banks of the Tanais. Jornandes, de Rebus Goth. c. xxiv. calls them *gens infuta*.

to the north and the east by the numerous hordes of Slavonians. It is probable that the branches of the Finnic race are the Laplanders, who are also perhaps connected with the Huns, the *Esthes*, or ancient Esthonians and Livonians; the Permians incorporated with the Scandinavians, particularly the Norwegians, the last people founded a powerful state in the tenth century; lastly, the Hungarians or Magyars, who were composed of Finnic and Turkish tribes, and governed by Persians or Bucharians.

Such are considered the ramifications of the Finnic race, or as it is called in Russia, the *Tchoude*. There are without doubt many reasons that may induce some to regard the Hungarians as a separate branch, or at all events a mixed, though ancient people.

The Samoiedes, the Siriaines, the Morduates, and other tribes, appear to have been wandering hordes that migrated from Asia, and being subdued at different times by the Bulgarians, the Hungarians and Permians, their language was gradually changed; their origin is now uncertain.

Teutonic nations.

The Teutonic nations, of which the most important are the Germans, the Scandinavians, and the English, are situated to the west of the Slavonians and Finns, in the western and central regions of Europe. The Germans, on account of their different dialects, may be divided into two classes; the inhabitants of the mountains on the south, and those of the plains on the north. The *high German*, and its harsh and guttural dialects, are spoken in Switzerland, Swabia, Alsace, Bavaria, the Austrian States, Silesia and Transylvania. The softer dialects, or the low German, may be again divided into Dutch and Flemish, or into all that remains of the ancient Belgian, which extended from the Zuider-zee to Sleswick; and into *low or old Saxon*, which was spoken from Westphalia and Holstein to eastern Prussia. We ought, lastly, to mention the Saxon, as holding an intermediate place between these two German dialects, almost as different from each other as the Italian and the French. The Saxon is the language of Franconia, and of the higher orders in Li-

Germans.

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vonia and Esthonia; in the form of the words, it resembles the *high* German, and the low in the softness of its pronunciation.

Scandinavian nations.

The Scandinavian nations, or the Swedes, Goths, Norwegians, Danes and Jutlanders form a distinct race from the German nations, and were separated from them at a remote period. Still, however, there is some resemblance between them and the Dutch, the Frieslanders and the low Saxons. All that remains of the ancient Scandinavian, as it was spoken in the ninth century, is retained in the Dalecarlian, the old Norwegian of the vallies of Dofre, in the dialect of the Feroe islands, and the Norse, the language of the Shetland islanders. Two others, or rather modern dialects, the Swedish and the Danish, are both of them branches of the ancient Scandinavian; but in the progress of civilization they have lost much of their strength and even of their copiousness. A third dialect, that of Jutland, retains the marks of the old Anglo-Saxon, which has some affinity with the ancient Scandinavian.

English.

The English and Scots in the lower part of Scotland, are sprung from Belgians, Saxons, Anglo-Saxons, Jutlanders, and Scandinavians. Their different dialects united and modified, formed the old English or the *Anglo-Dano-Saxon*, a language which was corrupted by the sudden introduction of barbarous Latin and barbarous French at the Norman invasion; but its ancient character was not thus destroyed; it was afterwards slowly but gradually improved. It must be confessed, however, that the dialects spoken in Suffolk, Yorkshire, and in the low counties of Scotland, bear a stronger resemblance than the English to the Teutonic tongues.

Ancient people of the west and the south.

The languages derived from the Latin are now spoken in the west and the south of Europe; but it is necessary to make, in connexion with the subject, some remarks on certain nations that were oppressed and subdued. No distinct trace remains of the Etruscans, the Ausonians,

the Osci and other indigenous states or such at least as were anciently settled in Italy. The words Celts and Iberians are no longer used in France, Spain, and Britain; but under other denominations we may discover the descendants of these great and ancient nations.

Basques.

The Basques, confined to the western base of the Pyrenees, still retain one of the most original languages in our part of the world; it has been proved that it is a branch of the Iberian, which was spoken in eastern and southern Spain, and was common also in Aquitanian Gaul.

Native Irish, Highlanders.

The Celts, one of the primitive European races, were most widely scattered in different countries. We may learn from the earliest histories of Europe, that they were settled at a remote epoch on the Alps and in the whole of Gaul, from which they migrated into the British islands and the central and western regions of Spain; at a later period they inundated Italy, Thrace, and Asia Minor. The Hibernians are an old branch of the same people; and according to some authors, the highlanders of Scotland are a colony of the native Irish. The *Erse* or Gælic is the only authentic monument of the Celtic language; but it may be readily admitted that a nation so widely extended must have been incorporated with many states whose dialects are at present extinct.

Belgians.

Belgium was at one period inhabited by Celts and Germans, but it may be proved that the earlier inhabitants were of Celtic origin; the Belgians having conquered part of England and Ireland, mingled with the native Celts, and were afterwards subdued by the Anglo-Saxons of Wales, Cumberland, and Cornwall; from these districts they returned to the continent, and peopled lower Brittany. The *Gaulois* or Gallic that is still spoken, is derived from the Belgian, which is very different from the Celtic, and the more modern dialect of lower Brittany is composed of several others; the Gauls called their language the Kumraigh or the Kymri, and the Latin authors of the middle ages denominated the people Cambrians;

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some geographical writers have incorrectly styled them Cimbres.

Latin language.

Such are the three native and ancient races of western Europe. The language of the Romans, particularly the popular dialect or *Romana rustica*, came gradually into use in different countries; it was thus mixed with native languages, and gave rise to provincial idioms; the purer Latin was spoken in the towns and churches. The irruption of the northern states, all of them, or almost all of them of Teutonic origin, introduced new confusion and new idioms into the Latino-Gallic and Latino-Iberian dialects; the language of the Troubadours, of which the seeds had been sown in a very remote age, appeared about the same time in western Europe. From it emanated the Italian, the Lombard, Venetian and Sicilian dialects, and also the *Provençal*, the *Oc* or Occitanian,[1] the Limosin and Catalonian. The old French and some of its dialects, as the Walloon and that of Picardy, must have existed for many centuries before the French name was known; to the same source must be attributed the modern Spanish, or the Castillian and Gallician.

Connexion between these languages and the number of inhabitants.

We are entitled to conclude from this imperfect account of the ancient European languages, that the three most populous races were the Romano-Celtic in the south and west; the Teutonic in the centre, the north and north-west; and the Slavonic in the east.

The Greek, the Albanian, the Turkish, and the Finnic languages in the east; the Basque, the Celtic or *erse*, and the Gælic or Kymric, however interesting to the philologist, are considered secondary by the political arithmetician. These seven languages are not spoken by more than twenty-five or twenty-seven millions in Europe, whilst the three

[1] The ancient Occitania included Languedoc, or, according to some writers, all the provinces beyond the Loire. "Quidam," says Dominici, "Occitaniam, alii provinciam linguæ Occitanæ vocitant. Hæc autem divisio Franciæ facta est duas in linguas, quod Vascones, Gothi sive Septimani, Provinciales, Delfinates aliique linguæ tortæ populi, præcipue Gothi pro ita utique *oc* dicere consueverunt; id est hoc. Cæteri Franciæ incolæ *oui*."

great races comprise a European population of more than a hundred and seventy-five millions. BOOK XCVI.

Europe reckons among its inhabitants the descendants of Arabians; they are distinguished in the island of Candia by the name of *Abadiotes*, and are confounded with the natives in the south of Spain. There are also two tribes of Kalmucs, who lead a wandering life between the Wolga and the Don. We may likewise mention the Jews that are dispersed throughout Europe, the Zigeunes or gypsies, an ancient Indian caste, and other tribes of the same sort that are treated with greater or less severity. Different tribes.

Christianity, in its various forms, is spread almost over the whole of Europe. The Greek, or eastern church, which owes its origin to the ancient church of the eastern empire, prevails still in Greece, and in part of Albania and Bulgaria, in Servia, Slavonia, Wallachia, Moldavia and Russia. The number of members belonging to it in Europe amounts to fifty millions. The Latin church, or, as it has been styled, the Catholic, is established in the south, the west, and in some central countries of Europe, Spain, Portugal, Italy, nine-tenths of France, four-fifths of Ireland, the low countries which belonged formerly to Austria, the half of Germany and Switzerland, and three-fourths of Hungary and Poland, submit to the dogmas of the Roman church, and acknowledge the authority of the pope or sovereign pontiff. There are some members of the same church in England, in Holland, and in Turkey; its sway extends over 98 or 99 millions of Europeans. The protestant countries of our continent are those in the north-east; that church, in conformity with its principles of liberty, is divided into different sects, of which the Lutheran predominates in the two Saxonies, Wirtemberg, Hesse, and other provinces of Germany, in the whole of Scandinavia, in the Baltic provinces of Russia, and in Prussia. Calvinism or Presbyterianism extends over Switzerland, western Germany, Holland, and Scotland. The Anglican church is almost exclusively confined to England; but its oppression is severely felt in Ireland. Religion. Greek Church. Latin Church. Reformed Church.

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There are also reformed churches in France, Hungary, Transylvania, and in the vallies of Piedmont. The total number of Protestants in Europe is not much more than 43 or 44 millions. We may mention, in addition to these three great ecclesiastical divisions of Europe, some smaller and distinct sects, as the Socinians in Transylvania, the *Quakers* in England, the Anabaptists in Holland, and the Arminians in Turkey; the Moravian brothers, or the Herrenhutians, cannot be ranked amongst them, for they are only distinguished from the Lutherans by their rules or mode of discipline.

Mahometans, idolaters.

The Mahometans in Europe may amount to four or five millions, they are chiefly composed of Turks, Tartars, and Bosnians. The confines of our continent in the neighbourhood of Asia are inhabited by idolaters; their number, if we include the Laplanders, the Samoides, the Tcheremitzi, the Wogoloski, the Kalmucs and two or three other wandering tribes, may be equal to half a million. The Jews are scattered in every country of Europe except Norway and Spain; but they are only numerous in Poland, Turkey, Germany, and Holland; their total number, according to the highest calculation, is not more than three millions.

Governments.

The European governments are now very different from what they were thirty years ago. Flourishing republics, such as Holland, Venice, Genoa, and Ragusa, a Germanic empire made up of three hundred small feudal, municipal or ecclesiastical states; a sovereign, military, and religious order, that of the Knights of Malta or St. John of Jerusalem, and a great elective monarchy,[m] have all of them disappeared during the revolutions that happened within that short but eventful period. European governments may be divided into two sorts, such as are governed by absolute princes, according to fixed laws, and a system of taxation seldom subject to change; secondly, such as are governed by a limited monarchy, and by re-

[m] Poland.

presentative assemblies, having the power of enacting laws and regulating taxation. The first are most numerous in the south and in the east of Europe, the second in the west and the north. Of the former we may mention Russia, Austria, Naples and Spain; of the latter, France, the Low Countries, Great Britain and Ireland, Sweden and Norway. The two kinds are mixed in the central countries; Sardinia, the States of the Church, Tuscany, Electoral Hesse and Denmark are pure monarchies; Bavaria, Wirtemburg, Baden, Hanover and Saxony are constitutional states. The kingdoms of Hungary and Poland, although attached to absolute monarchies, enjoy the advantages of a representative government; by public treaties and the sacred word of kings, national representatives are guaranteed to every part of the Germanic confederacy.

Thus it appears that limited monarchy is the most common form of government in Europe; the exceptions to it are not many, the Ottoman empire is the only real despotic state in our quarter of the world, unless indeed we add with a late traveller, the small principality of Monaco. The Helvetic Confederation, on the other hand, forms the only independent republic;[n] for the four free towns of Cracow, Lubeck, Hamburgh, Frankfort and the municipality of San Marino acknowledge the protection of different powers. It is not easy to determine the preponderance of particular nations in Europe; France, England, Russia, Austria and Prussia are at present denominated the five great states; but the last is much inferior to any of the rest in the number of its subjects, and in the extent of its revenues and resources. Of these five kingdoms, the European population amounts to 140 millions; *a perpetual alliance* has been formed by some of them, the avowed object of that great league is to maintain in-

Despotic states.

Republics.

Principal powers.

[n] It must be confessed that the independence of Switzerland is merely nominal. There is no need to prove that melancholy fact, it has been already done by a hundred Italian and Austrian exiles.

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violable certain constitutions and dynasties and also the present established forms of the Christian religion. The world is still ignorant of the principles, the deliberations and reciprocal guarantees of an alliance which is to supersede the famous system of the balance of power.

Physical relations between states.

Geography, however, may establish independently of human conventions, some physical relations between those portions of land that are denominated states. We shall indicate such as appear to us evident from an examination of the map; Russia encroaches on Turkey, Austria, Prussia and Sweden, all these countries may be thus exposed to formidable attacks, but Prussia is more so than any of the rest; the range of Hemus and the Carpathian chain protect Constantinople and Vienna; Scandinavia now united to Denmark, might, from its position and the resources of its inhabitants, resist the invasions of a Russian army. England or France might successfully oppose Russia, the one by entering into an alliance with Turkey and the Scandinavians, could confine the Russian navy and its commerce to inland seas; the other might support Austria, or assist Prussia. Were the German confederacy really united with Austria and Prussia, it might concentrate against its most formidable enemy the immense resources of the German nations. If we consider the secondary German States as so many small but independent powers, and it is equally the interest and the wish of the inhabitants to secure their independence, they might form a neutral country between Austria and France. The disjunction between the last two kingdoms would be complete, if Switzerland and Sardinia were better organized. Masters of the most important military positions in central Europe, the inhabitants of the minor states must either derive great benefit from such advantages, or suffer their country to be the theatre of foreign wars. France has few or no natural advantages which can facilitate its invasions; Austria, on the contrary, commands from the Upper Tyrol and the Valle-Telino several entrances into Bavaria and Switzerland. The Austrian empire having

arrived at its natural limits in Transylvania may still add Bosnia to its dominions, but it is naturally the ally, not the enemy of the Ottomans. The same power commands the Adriatic and the Po, and rules over the finest portion of Italy; for that reason, Austria has ever been most hostile to Italian independence. France, confined within its ancient limits, must remain at peace with the neighbouring states; if the line of fortifications at present building in the Low Countries be a barrier against the attacks of the French, the frontiers of every other country are sufficiently strong to resist their aggressions; on the other hand, although Prussia has extended its territories into Lorraine, France has not much to fear from any of its neighbours. The small number of French sea ports, the tides which limit their utility, their great distance from one another, and their situation on two different seas are likely to check the naval ambition of the French. If Spain and Portugal were united by better institutions, they might defy every foreign invasion; had Providence intended to secure to humanity many ages of peace, such positions as those in Spain and Portugal had been more numerous on our globe.

Constituent parts of empires.

We may conclude, from a view of the Map, that Russia occupies more than a half of the superficies of Europe, and possesses more than a fourth part of its population. There are, beyond the limits of that vast empire, twelve millions of Slavonians and three millions of Greeks, who, exclusively of the policy of the Russians, are attached to them from the fact, that they either speak the same language, or are devoted to the same worship. The subjects of other European empires are too widely scattered, or so different in their habits and pursuits, that it is in vain to form from such elements a national character. What legislator would attempt to unite under the same laws, the vine dresser on the banks of the Moselle and the fisherman on the shores of the Baltic! The language of both is however the same. It is difficult to imagine men more dissimilar than the Hungarians near the Ural mountains, and the Italians, the

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Germans or Slavonians. What resemblance can be discovered between the Turk and the Greek, between the rude barbarian and the descendants of the most intellectual people: although other countries are better situated, still many of the provinces in France and in Spain are neglected from the effects of a complicated and injudicious administration. Some of the great empires may possess in time the whole of Europe, or terminate in a universal monarchy after the Roman or Chinese fashion. If providence remove that danger, the most formidable to the progress of civilization, it may perhaps reserve for us ages of war, migrations and revolutions, which after much bloodshed may bring about freedom, patriotism and national industry.

Population forms one of the elements in the strength of states, but the political value of men varies greatly in the ratio of their concentration, their intelligence and courage. The following are some of the facts connected with that branch of political geography.

Population. The actual population of Europe is at least 200,000,000, and it is not likely to be overrated at 205 millions; that number, which forms probably a fourth part of the human race, is very unequally distributed in our part of the world, and the inequality does not follow a constant progression from north to south. Some of the results derived from the correct and valuable tables of M. Balbi, * may be indicated.

	Inhabitants.
Sweden and Norway per square league,	82
Russia,	181
Denmark,	616
Prussia, (all the Monarchy of)	792
England,	1457
Low Countries,	1829
Saxony, (kingdom of)	1252
Bavaria,	968

* See the Tables at the end of the work.

	Inhabitants.	
Wurtemburg, per square league, -	1502.	
Switzerland, - - - -	783	
France, - - - - -	1063	
Hungary, - - - - -	750	
Lombardy, Venetian kingdom, -	1711	
Sardinia, (States of) - - -	1122	(1085)
Lucca, (Dutchy of) - - -	2509	
Tuscany, - - - - -	836	(931)
States of the Church, - - -	1043	
Naples and Sicily, - - -	747	
Portugal, - - - -	892	
Spain, - - - - -	641	
Ionian Islands, - - - -	1770	
Turkey, - - - - -	324	

Causes of these results.

It is in the centre of Europe that the population is greatest, and it is in the same part of the continent that states are best governed; on that account it has been said, and perhaps not unjustly, that mankind increases under good governments. Some exceptions, however, may be observed; but they depend on physical and other causes. Extensive countries, which include great and not very fruitful provinces, are necessarily less populous than small and fertile states. Thus the number of inhabitants in Portugal must be proportionably greater than in Spain, on the supposition that there is not much difference in the governments of these two kingdoms. Tuscany, which is infinitely better governed than the Roman States, is not however so well peopled; but the lands in the territory of Bologna, in Romagna and the Marches of Ancona may be compared as to their fertility and cultivation to the plains of Lombardy. The extent of cultivated land in Switzerland and Norway is confined by mountainous chains; if allowance be made for that circumstance, these states must be considered very populous. History may enable us to discover some of the causes which affect population in particular countries; there are not more,

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for instance, than 750 inhabitants to the square league in Hungary; but, in Galicia or the mountainous part of Poland, the number amounts to 2600; one cause of so great a difference is that the districts in the neighbourhood of Lemberg and Cracow were much less infested by the Huns, Turks and Tartars. The increase of population is retarded in Turkey by the plague; were it not for that cause, it might be considerable. An epidemic disease of the same kind depopulated in the year 1340, the north of Europe, the native country of so many warlike hordes.

It may excite our surprise, that the wretched and oppressed inhabitants of some countries multiply their species with so extraordinary rapidity; population in Ireland has increased in a greater ratio than in Scotland. An intelligent man dreads poverty, the attendant of a numerous offspring, a savage or a slave has no fears for the morrow. [p]

Maritime countries.

It has been generally observed that the means of subsistence on islands and in the neighbourhood of coasts are greater than in inland countries; thus in Denmark, the islands of Arroe and Zeland, the peninsula of Eyderstedt and Dithmarsen are as thickly peopled as England, the Low Countries or Lombardy; Jutland, on the contrary, is not more populous than southern Sweden. The same, or a greater difference exists between the maritime districts of France and Spain, and the central provinces of Berri and Castille. It has been found that the number of inhabitants in the Spanish provinces on the sea coast are as 904 to the square league, and that the number in the interior does not exceed 507; [q] but that rule is subject to many exceptions. Wirtemburg, a central and not very fertile country, which has only enjoyed the blessings of a good government for a short period, has become so populous that annual migrations are almost indispensable. Corsica, Sardinia and even Sicily are not so well peopled as Italy.

[p] Laws have been enacted in Switzerland by which penalties are enforced against the parents of natural children.

[q] Astillon, Geografia de Espagna.

The most remarkable exception to the rule may be discovered in Russia; its population is concentrated in the inland provinces; in some of them the number is as 400, in others as 900 to the square league; but in the provinces on the Baltic it varies between 80 and 300, and in those on the White and Black Seas it descends to 40, and in some places to 2. Can the cause of this phenomenon be traced in the history of these nations, or can it be supposed that the Slavonic race is more prolific than the Finnic and the Tartar? The last hypothesis appears very probable; these countries are most likely to be populous, the inhabitants of which are thoughtless, social, improvident and regardless of intellectual enjoyment; and a resemblance in these qualities is discernible between the Slavonians, especially the Russians, and the Celtic nations, particularly the Irish.

Increase of population.

Whatever be the causes on which these phenomena depend, the mean annual increase of the whole European population cannot, according to the lowest estimation, be less than a million, so that before the year 1900 it may amount to three hundred millions. The augmentation is more rapid in the north than in the centre, the south or the west. Russia, with a population of 58 millions, adds to it annually, five or six hundred thousand. It is supposed that there are thirty millions of inhabitants in France, but the yearly increase is less than two hundred thousand. The population of Austria amounts to twenty-nine millions, and increases nearly in the same ratio as that of France. Italy and Spain remain almost stationary; Turkey appears to be retrograde.

Necessity of emigration.

It has been feared lest the population of Europe become so great before the lapse of no very distant period that subsistence or even sufficient space may be wanting for its inhabitants; but it is probable that several ages must elapse before such an evil can excite serious alarm. The soil of Europe might afford enough of food for a thousand millions of inhabitants; on the other hand, it cannot be doubted that in some districts in a province or in a kingdom, the

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means of subsistence may be inadequate to the population; thus the necessity of emigration is felt in Wirtemburg and in Switzerland. If the population of Norway were doubled, it might amount to three millions; in that case it might be impossible to raise in Norway, or to receive in exchange for its produce, a quantity of food sufficient for the wants of its inhabitants; but there are many countries to which they could migrate. The following calculations may throw some light on the subject.

The limits that population may attain in some countries.

If the whole of Italy were as well peopled as Lombardy, it might contain twenty-six millions of individuals, and the dutchy of Lucca is, in proportion to its size, more populous than Lombardy. If all Spain were peopled in the same manner as the district of Guipuscoa, or in other words, in the ratio of 2009 to the square league, its inhabitants would amount to 30,146,000, a number nearly three times as great as its present population. Were the same country only as populous as the Asturias, or as 1180 to the square *legua*, and the Asturias are not well cultivated, the total number of individuals would be equal to 17,735,900. Portugal is much less than Spain, and, throughout its whole extent nearly of equal fertility; Alentejo, one of its provinces, contains only 431 inhabitants to the square league; Entre-Douro and Minho contain 2700. If the whole kingdom were peopled like the first, the number of inhabitants could not exceed 1,481,533; if it were peopled like the second, they might amount to 10,707,813. The actual population is not more than three millions, but it might, without much inconvenience, be increased to six.

To believe, however, that the redundant inhabitants of one country can pass quietly into another, presupposes a degree of wisdom as well as union among mankind, which we are not entitled to expect.

Future migrations of states.

It is evident, therefore, that the increase of the human race in the north may occasion at last a new migration of states to the south, an event which, in the course of time, is very likely to happen. The natives of northern states

are intelligent, enterprising and not loath to quit their rude climates for southern countries, which, it is true, might be possessed by more courageous and enlightened inhabitants.

Such an invasion is rendered more probable from the fact, that the increase of population is greater and more uniform in the countries that are least exposed to the plague, the yellow fever and other epidemic diseases, that from time to time depopulate the south of Europe. It may be urged that, with the exception of Norway, Switzerland, and some high vallies in Sweden and Hungary, the recurrence of famine is very rare in the northern and central regions of Europe. The granaries that have been established in local states by public authority, must tend to diminish greatly the chances of local famine.

There is, besides, another reason, independent of the means of subsistence, which excites the people in different states to migration; it is the desire of enjoyment, of indulging in luxury or gratifying ambition. That desire is increased by the accounts of travellers, and by a few examples of great wealth amassed in a short period. It is to that tendency, natural to the most civilized people in every epoch, that must be ascribed the colonies of the ancient Greeks, of the Spaniards in the 15th century, and of the English in our own times. Portugal and the Low Countries rose into importance from their settlements; the same course of glory and prosperity is not shut against enterprising nations. The form only of colonization has been changed and it has been discovered to be most advantageous at present not to found colonies but independent states, and by that means to form outlets for an abundant population, marts for industry and security for national liberty against hostile invasions.

Rank.

It might not be an unprofitable task to arrange the inhabitants of Europe according to their rank, their occupations and fortune; but that subject belongs more exclusively to political economy, or rather to statistics, which is closely connected with it. The two hundred and five millions that inhabit Europe, submit to fifty-three reigning families,

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of which the relatives or younger branches may amount to 1200 individuals, their appanage, independently of their private incomes, exceeds L. 11,340,000; the greatest part of that sum is consumed in maintaining the splendour and dignitaries of courts. The acknowledged equality between kings is in reality destroyed by the preponderance of four or five monarchs; the princes of Schwartzburg and Hohenzollern, although sovereigns, and of ancient and illustrious origin, are unable to exert such influence or display such pomp as an Austrian or English minister.

Agriculturists.

Nobility.

It might have formerly been worth while to ascertain the number of noble families in Europe, or even the individuals who composed them; but that order is no longer distinguished by a chivalrous spirit or an illustrious birth; a political nobility exists in several great states; individual merit may sometimes obtain that dignity, but it is more frequently lavished by the favour of kings; besides a barrier has been raised between the ancient and the modern nobility. A Spanish grandee considers himself much superior to a poor *hidalgo*, and the Russian *odnodworzi*, although of a more ancient origin than the *kniais*, are hardly acknowledged as freemen. Thus, although we were in possession of sufficient data to calculate the number of noble families in Europe, we doubt if instruction or amusement could be derived from the result.

Middling classes.

The constant and uniform increase of the middling classes, whose education is at least equal if not superior to that of the nobles, forms a subject well deserving of inquiry, but the means of gaining information are still wanting. That active and influential class amounts at least to three millions, but it is very unequally scattered over Europe; it is weak, although protected in Russia, powerful and peaceable in England, numerous but divided in France.

Authors.

Men distinguished by their intellectual attainments, form a third class; the authors in our part of the earth are sufficiently numerous to people a small state. The number of living writers in Germany, France, and in

England, exceeds 12,000; such a body, were it not divided against itself, might govern the world; but the republic of letters is paralysed by three contending principles, attachment to particular sects in Germany, party-spirit in England, and self-interest in France. A republic so ill composed might have been compared to Poland, had that state not been annihilated by the great powers. The manufacturing population is a modern phenomenon, and one of the most remarkable; fifteen or sixteen millions of Europeans are at present solely indebted for the means of subsistence to their manual labour. If the outlets of commerce were obstructed or diminished by prohibitions, tens of thousands might people the hospitals, or add to the emigrations of twenty thousand individuals, who pass yearly from Europe to the western Continent. These industrious *proletarii* [r] abound in England, in some parts of France, in the Low Countries, Germany and Switzerland.

Working classes.

The agricultural class comprehends about two-thirds of the European population; its number is inconsiderable in England, but very great in Russia; it may be remarked that the one hundred and forty millions, of whom that class consists, are acquiring daily additional knowledge.

Agriculturists and husbandmen.

The soldiers in the service of different governments make up a body of two millions, or one hundredth part of the total mass; their pay amounts to two-fifths of the public revenue in the most of the European states. The political value of an individual who contributes to the exigencies of his country, varies remarkably in different kingdoms; it is of the highest importance to ascertain that variation, as it enables us to appreciate the strength of states, the events of our own times, and such as are likely to happen. Every one

Value of an individual.

[r] The proletarii composed the lowest order of Roman citizens. They were so called, because, with the exception of their offspring, they contributed nothing to the state.

BOOK XCVI. contributes to the public revenue in the following proportions:—

England,	L.3	13	4
British possessions in Europe,	2	10	10
France,	1	8	4
Low Countries,	1	7	6
Bavaria and Wirtemburg,	0	19	2
Denmark and Saxony,	0	18	4
Prussia,	0	17	6
Spain,	0	15	0
Poland,	0	14	2
Austria and Austrian Poland,	0	12	6
Galicia,	0	13	4
Portugal,	0	13	4
Russia,	0	11	8
Sardinian states,	0	10	10
Sweden,	0	10	0
Roman states,	0	10	0
The two Sicilies,	0	9	2
Tuscany,	0	8	4

Remarks. It may be seen from the above table, that the wealth, the energy and public spirit of a state, may be estimated from the contributions of the individuals who compose it. Constitutional governments are dear, despotic ones are cheap; it is far from our intention to assert that the difference in the sum paid for these two kinds of government is proportionate to the value of the one above that of the other. It may also be observed, from a perusal of the table, that some states with slender revenues are well governed; Tuscany is one of them, but that fact need not excite surprise; very few troops are maintained in Tuscany, because it is in reality under the protection of a great empire—*bene qui latuit bene vixit.* Some governments, loaded with an immense public debt, are reduced to the necessity of taxing their subjects beyond the natu-

ral proportion of their means and resources. It is well known that such is the case in England; but if an Englishman were to contribute in the form of taxation twice as much as a Frenchman, both nations might be nearly on a footing of equality. It must have been observed, that the revenues payable in money, are scanty in some kingdoms of eastern Europe, particularly in Russia, but the deficiency is supplied by *præstationes in natura*; these sources of emolument it is difficult to calculate.

Some of the republics and free towns have been hitherto omitted, it was thought best to consider them apart. The portion of each individual amounts to the following sums. In

Francfort,	L.2	6	0
Bremen,	1	3	4
Lubeck,	1	2	6
Hamburg,	1	0	10
Ionian Islands,	0	14	2
San Marino,	0	11	8
Cracow,	0	9	2

Value of the military service.

If the same rules be applied to determine the value of the military service in all the European states, the difference might appear still more remarkable; but it is not easy to express that difference in numbers, because the effective condition of armies varies; secondly, because we must include the naval force that is generally disbanded in time of peace; lastly, the same number of combatants does not represent the same physical strength or courage in the field of battle.

It is likely, however, that the proportion, which every European state might adopt without exhausting its resources, or even without taking away any useful hand from agriculture, is that of one soldier for every hundred inhabitants. It will be seen that several great and small military states go beyond that proportion, while others of a different description fall short of it.

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In England, the ratio is as one soldier to	140 inhabitants.
In France,	110
In Austria,	100
In Russia,	90
In Bavaria,	69
In Prussia,	68
In Poland,	60
In Wirtemburg,	59
In Sweden,	58
In Denmark,	57
The two Hesses,	49
The proportions in other states are much lower.	
In the two Sicilies,	180
In Tuscany,	200
In the Roman states,	300

Northern states more powerful.

It is impossible to derive any accurate conclusion from these results; for we cannot separate the warlike character of nations and the extraordinary efforts of governments. One fact however is certain,—the political, military and financial value of the states in the north of Europe, is double, treble or even four times greater than that of states equally populous in the south. If it be supposed that Switzerland or Denmark and the two Sicilies were nearer one another and that during a war between them, the other European powers remained neutral, the result of the contest might be easily predicted. It is probable that the Neapolitans would first sue for peace and give up Sicily to satisfy the Danes; the kingdom of Naples might be as easily conquered by the Swiss, if they were united and under the command of experienced officers. But the population of Naples is four times greater than that of Switzerland or Denmark, its territory twice as extensive and its agricultural produce ten or twelve times more valuable. The inhabitants in the south of France cannot endure the fatigues of war so well as those in the north, and the character of the Spaniards forms no exception to the general rule. If Europe be divided by the Rhine and the Alps,

or by a line drawn from Amsterdam to Venice, it may be found that the number of troops in the north and in the east, amounts to twelve or fourteen millions, and that it does not exceed six or seven in the south and in the west. The revenues are divided in an inverse proportion.

In the north and in the east, .	L.71,400,000
In the south and the west, .	138,600,000

Synoptical tables of ancient and modern European states, their origin, languages.[s]

1. PELASGIAN RACE.

A. *Thracian Branch,* (Adelung. Vater. Gatterer.)

1. Phrygians in Asia, Bryges in Europe.†
2. Lydians, a colony in Etruria?
   Lydias, a district of Macedonia.
   Tyrrheni of Macedonia.
3. Trojans, their migrations.
4. Bythinians, from whom are descended the Thyni.× (Mannert.)
5. The Carians, some colonies in Laconia, &c.†. (R. Rochette.)
6. Thracians proper, (See Slavonians, &c.)
   Maidi in Thrace, (a branch of the Medes)?. (MB.)
   Pelagones in Macedonia; Pehluwan? (MB.)

B. *Illyrian Branch.*

1. Mysi or Mœsi, a mixed people.
2. Daces or Getes? × (See Wallachians.)
3. Dardani? ×
4. Ancient Macedonians, at least a number of them ×.
5. Ancient Illyrii ×. (See Albanians.)

[s] Doubtful and uncertain opinions are marked by the sign (?). Nations now extinct and dead languages or those of which there remains no living branch are indicated by the sign (†). Those of which we can discover some obscure traces or are obviously mixed with others, are denoted by the sign (×). Lastly in making mention of certain opinions we have affixed the names of the authors who first supported them. To such hypotheses as we ourselves think likely, and which are not mentioned by others, are added the letters MB.

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α, Parthini, or the White in Albanian.
ϛ, Taulantii.
γ, Molossi.
δ, Ardiœi (Eordœi, in Macedonia.)
ι, Dalmatæ.

6. Pannonians or Pœones †. (Mannert.) ?.
7. Venetes, or Illyrian colony in Italy ×. (Freret.)
8. Sicules, idem ×.
9. Japyges, idem †.

C. *Pelasgo-Hellenic Branch.*

1. Pelasges or Pelarges, the aborigines of Greece and Italy × (from *pela* a rock or stone.)
2. Leleges, an Asiatic colony, that came into Greece †. (R. Rochette.)
3. Curetes, idem ? †.
4. Perrhebes, Pelasges of Thessaly.†
5. Thesprotes, idem in Epiras.†
6. Ætoli, (probably Illyrians.)
7. Hellenes, called formerly Græei in Epirus, and Græi in Thrace.
   α, Achæi or Achivi, in other words, the inhabitants on the banks of rivers.
   ϛ, Iones or Iaones, archers or shooters of darts.
   γ, Dores or Dorians, men armed with spears.
   δ, Aioli or Eolians, wanderers.
8. Arcadians, Pelasges of the Peloponnesus.×
9. Oenotres, emigrants in Italy.×
10. Tyrrhenes, idem, idem × (R. Rochette.)

ANCIENT LANGUAGES SPOKEN BY THESE NATIONS.

A. *Thracian Languages,* † *or* × ?

1. Thracian proper connected with the Persian in the names of individuals.
2. Phrygian, one of the sources of the Greek, the Illyrian or Albanian.
3. Lydian, probably a dialect of the Phrygian.
4. Carian, a mixed dialect composed probably of Pelasgian and Phenician.

The Lycaonian of St. Paul.

B. *Illyrian Languages.*

1. Illyrian proper, one of the sources of the Albanian.
2. Getan—known before the conquests of the Slavonian nations.

* The Sigynne, a Median or Hindoo tribe, ancestors of the Gypsies or Zigeunes, they spoke probably an Asiatic dialect.

C. *Hellenic Languages, ancient Greek,* (Thiersch and M.B.)

1. Ancient Hellenic, connected with the Pelasgian.
   a. Arcadian.†
   b. Thessalonian and the ancient Macedonian Greek × ?
   c. Oenotrian spoken in Italy and mixed with the Latin ×.
2. Hellenic language during the historic times.
   a. Old Eolian, connected with the Oenotrian, (language of the gods in Homer.)
   b. Ancient Dorian, descended from the Eolian, (language of Sappho, Pindar, &c.)
      α, Laconian, a separate dialect.
      ϵ, Dorian of Syracuse, (language of Theocritus.)
   c. Ancient Ionian, or the Hellenic polished by commercial nations, (language of Homer, classical in epic poetry.)
      α, Asiatic Ionian still more polished; (language of Herodotus.)
      β, European Ionian, more energetic than the others, the Attic dialect forms its principal branch, (the classic language of orators and tragedians.)
   d. Greek or the Attic dialect purified and modelled by the grammarians of Alexandria, the common language of the whole of Greece, of the East, and of the higher classes at Rome to the time of the Barbaric invasions.
   e. Local dialects, little known.
      α, Vulgar Alexandrian.
      β, Syro-Greek, (language of the New Testament.)

II. ETRUSCAN OR ITALIAN NATIONS.

1. Aborigines or Opici (children of Ops, the earth) Generic names, (M.B.)
   a. Euganei, anterior to the Veneti †.
   b. Ligurians, divided into numerous tribes.
   c. Etrusci, the mass of the Etrurian nation.
      * The Etrurian nation appears to have been composed of castes or tribes.
      α, Caste of the nobles, Larthes in Etruscan; Tyrani or Tyrheni, in Eolian or Pelasgian.
      β, Caste of the priests. Tusci or sacrificers.
      γ, Warlike caste, Rasenæ? See below.
      δ, Tribe of the people.

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d. Piceni and Sabini.
e. Marsi, &c. &c.
f. Umbri, (Dionysius of Halicarnassus.)
g. Samnites, perhaps Samones, mountaineers (Samos,) divided into,
1. Hirpini, or (wolf hunters.)
2. Caudini, (armed with trunks of trees.)
3. Pentri, (from peenus, a point.)
4. Caraceni, (wearing the caraca.)
5. Frentani, (armed with slings.) (M.B.)
h, Latini, &c. ×.
i, Ausones, ×.
k, Siculi, according to Dionysius.
l, Lucani and Brutti or Bretti.

2. Colonies to which some allusion is made in history.
a. Eastern, the following:
α, Pelasgians of Arcadia, (1400 years before Christ.)†
β, Ancient Græci and Pelasgians of Thessaly, (idem.) †
γ, Oenotri divided into,
1. Oenotri proper (the vine dressers.)
2. Chonii, (the husbandmen.)
ζ, Daunian, Iapyges, &c.
δ, Tyrrheni, (in Macedonian Lydia.)
ε, Trojans, whose language was the ancient Eolian, (900 years before Christ. (M.B.)
η, Achean colonies, Doric, Chalcidian in Sicily, and Magna Grecia.
b. Northern colonies:
α, The Siculi, according to the Moderns, ×?.
β, The Venetes, or Illyrians, or Slavonians,
γ, Rhasenæ (Rhætes;) the warlike tribe of Etruria?
δ, Peligni, (Pela, a rock in the Macedonian language.)
Western Colonies:
α, Celtic colonies, ×. (Freret.)
1. Umbri. (See above.)
2. Senones.
3. Ligures? See above.
4. Insubres, (Isombri.)
5. Volscians, (Volcæ)? †
β, Iberian or Bask colonies.
1. Sicani.
2. Osques,[t]

[t] We must not confound the Opici or Opsci with the Osci, a colony of the Osques, Eusques or Vasques from Spanish Vescetania, settled in the Vesce-

3. Corsi, ×
4. Ilienses in Sardinia. (See G. Humboldt.)
5. Balari, &c. &c.

ANCIENT LANGUAGES OF THESE NATIONS.

A. *Italian Languages.* (Merula and M.B.)

1. Etruscan language, divided probably into the sacred, the vulgar, and other dialects, as:
   a. Rhetick.
   b. Falisk.
   c. Umbrian.
2. Opsic, language of central Italy.
   a. Sabelline.
   b. Sabine.
   c. Latin.
2. Ausonian, Sicilian, Lucanian.

B. *Languages not connected with the Italian.*

1. Celtic and Illyrian dialects.
   a. The Ligurian.
   b. Dialect of the Cisalpine Gauls.
   c. Idem of the Venetes.
   d. Volscian.
   e. Dialect of the Japyges.
2. Iberian dialects. (See G. Humboldt.)
   a. Osc, (Eusck or Basque.)
   b. Sicanian, &c.
3. Hellenic dialects.
   a. Dorian. (Merula.)
      1. Syracusan or Siciliote.
      2. Tarentine. (Laconian.)
   b. Acheo-Ionian. (M.B.)
      1. Sybaritan.
      2. Crotoniate.
   c. Eolo-dorian.
      1. Locrian.

MODERN NATIONS DESCENDED FROM THE PELASGO, HELLENO, ETRUSCANS, THEIR LANGUAGES.

1. Modern Greek, (Romeika, Aplo-Hellenica.)

tania of Italy, or Campus Vescitanus. The two names have been long confounded, and have given rise to many errors.

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1. Modern Eolo-Dorian.
2. Tzakonite, branch of the Dorian.
3. Cretan or Candiote.
4. Greek, (Epirote and Albanian.)
5. Wallachian and Bulgarian Greek, &c. (F. Adelung.)

2. Albanians or Schypetars, mixed with the ancient Illyrians, Greeks, and Celts. (Masci and M.B.)

Schype or Albanian language.

a. Albanian proper.
   α, Dialect of the Guegues.
   β, ——— Mirdites.
   γ, ——— Toskes.
   δ, ——— Chamouris.
   ε, ——— Iapys.

b. Albanian mixed.
   α, Albanian of Epirus.
   β, Italo-Albanian of Calabria.
   γ, Albanian of Sicily.

3. Wallachians or Roumouni, a people that mixed with the Thracian and Dacian peasants, the Roman military colonists, the Slavonian and others.

Wallachian language, or Slavo-Latin, or Daco-Roman.

a. Romounaick or Wallachian proper.
b. Moldavian.
c. Wallachian of Hungary and Transylvania.
d. Kutzo-Wallachian, or Wallachians of Thrace and Greece.

4. Italian.
5. French.
6. Spaniard.

} See Celto-Roman nations.

Languages Celto-Latin.

a. Italian.
b. Provençal.
c. French.
d. Spanish.

III. SLAVONIAN NATIONS.

ANCIENT BRANCHES KNOWN TO THE GREEKS AND ROMANS.

1. Scythians divided into castes and tribes. (M.B.)

a. Royal Scythians, the ruling tribe, who spoke the Zend or another dialect of Upper Asia.

* Fourteen Medo-Scythian words found in Herodotus.

b. Scythians, employed as husbandmen. Vassals, probably Slavonian tribes, sold as slaves.

* Scythian dialect, not unknown to Aristophanes. Words in Pliny. Inscriptions at Olbia.

c. Scythian shepherds, vassal tribes, probably Finnic or Tchoudes. (Bayer, &c.)

2. Sarmates, a conquering horde, resembling in their physiognomy the Mongol Tartars. (M.B.)
   a. Sarmates, proper.
   b. Jaxamates, (perhaps the same as the Jazyges.)
   c. Exomates.
   d. Thisomates, (inscription of Protagoras.)
3. Ostro-Goths, conquerors of the Sarmatians. See below.

B. *Ancient Slavonian Nations.*

1. Southern Slavonians.
   a. Henetes in Paphlagonia? †. (Sestrencewicz.)
   b. Cappadocians? (Idem.)
   c. Crobizy, (Chrowitzy), in Thrace, ×. (M.B.)
   d. Bessi, Idem. ×
   e. Triballes, (Drewaly)? †
   f. Dardani, from darda, a dart? (M.B.)
   g. Different tribes on the mountains of Greece.
   h. Carni and Istri.
   i. Veneti, according to some authors.
2. Northern Slavonians.
   a. The Serbi and the Vali, near the Rha. (Wolga.) †
   b. Roxolani ×, called afterwards Ros.
   c. Budini, a Gothic or Slavonic people. †
   d. Bastarnæ and Peucini.
   e. Daces, the people that gave to the Dacian towns the Slavonic terminations in ava. ×
   f. Olbiopolites of the second century, mixed with the Greeks. †
   g. Pannonii, (Pan, a Lord)?
   h. Carpi, in the Carpathian mountains.
   i. Biessi, in the Biecziad mountains.
   k. Sabogues, &c.
   l. Lygii, afterwards Licechi, &c. &c.
   m. Mougilones, and others mentioned by Strabo.
   n. Venedi or Venedæ, called afterwards Wendes, near the mouths of the Vistula.
   o. Semnones, between the Oder and the Elbe? ×.
   p. Vindili, mentioned by Pliny.
   q. Osi, mentioned by Tacitus, (Otschi, fathers.)

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BOOK XCVI. SLAVONIAN NATIONS AND LANGUAGES KNOWN SINCE THE TIME OF ATTILA.

A. *Eastern and Southern branch*, (Dobrowski, Vater.)

1. Russians, mixed with the Roxolans, Slavonians, and Goths.
   a. Great Russians of Novgorod, Moscow, Susdal, &c.
   b. Little Russians of Kiow and the Ukraine.
   c. Rusniacs, or Orosz, in Galicia and Upper Hungary.
   d. Cossacks, mixed with the Tartars.

Russian Languages.

   α, Great Russian, (written language.)
   β, Dialect of Susdal, the most heterogeneous of any.
   γ, Dialect of Ukraine, or Little Russia.
   δ, Rusniac, a very ancient dialect.
   ε, Russo-Lithuanian, derived from the Kriwitz? See Wende.
   ζ, Russian Cossack.

2. Servians, or Slavonians, on the Danube.
   Servian Language, (Serbska.)
   a. Servian proper, (a written and polished dialect.)
      Ancient Slavonian, language of the Russian Church, almost the same as the Servian.
   b. Bosnian dialect.
   c. Dalmatian dialect, mixed with Italian.
   d. Dialect of Montenegri.
   e. Uscoque, mixed with Turkish.
   f. Slavonian, pure.
   g. Bulgaro-Slavonian, &c.

3. Croatians, or Chrobates, or Slavonians of Noricum.
   Croatian Language.
   a. Croatian, or Chrobate dialect, or dialect of the mountains.
   b. Slovene, spoken in the west of Lower Hungary, (a written dialect.)
   c. ——— Winde, spoken by the southern Windes, a mixed people.
      α, Winde of Carniola, dialects of Karstes, Tziszches, Poykes, &c.
      β, Winde of Styria and Corinthia.
   d. Dialect of the Podluzakes in Moravia and perhaps of the Charwates.

B. *Central and Western Branch.*

1. Poles or Liaiches.
   Polish (a written language.)

a. Dialect of Great Poland.
b. ——— Little Poland.
c. The Mazures in Mazovia and Podlachia. Mazure, a mixed dialect.
d. The Goralis in the Krapack mountains.
e. The Kassubes in Pomerania.
f. The Silesian Poles, Medziborian dialect, old Polish mixed with German.

2. Bohemians or Czeches, (Tchekes.)
a. Czheches, properly called.
b. Czheches of Moravia.
* Czheche language, few or no dialects.

3. Slowaques or Slavons of Northern Hungary.
a. Slowaque dialects confined to the mountains.
b. Dialects on the banks of the Danube.
c. Hanaque dialect in Moravia.
d. Straniaque, idem. idem.
e. Schiclagschaque, (idem) &c.
} Derived from the Mahrawany or Slavonic of Great Moravia.

II. *Wendians or Slavonians on the Baltic.*

A. *Wendes proper* (Vindili ? Winidæ.)

a. Wagri, (Eastern Holstein) ×.
b. Obotriti or Afdrede (Mecklenburg) ×.
c. Rani †.
d. Rugeans mixed with Scandinavians ×.
e. Lutitzi.
f. Wilzi.
g. Welatabi.
h. Havelli, &c.
} Brandenburg ×.
i. Milzieni.
k. Serbes or Sorabi.
} Saxony.
l. Wendes of Altenburg.
m. Regio Slavonum in Franconia.
n. Luzinki.
o. Zpriawani.
} Lusace.
p. Polabes or Linones ×.

B. *Lithuanian Wendes.* (Venedæ, Æstyi.)

1. Pruczi or Gothic Wendes (Gudai.)
Prucze language † 1683.

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2. Litwani or Lithuanians.
   a. Litewka, a written language.
1. Dialect of Wilna.
2. Schamaite dialect, or that of Samogitia.
3. Prussian dialect.
   b. Kriwitze dialect in White Russia.
   c. Lotwa.
1. Lotwa of Livonia.
2. Semegal in Semigallia.
3. Dialect of the Rhedes, Tamneckes, &c.

IV. FINNIC OR TCHOUDE NATIONS.

Ancient Nations that have inhabited the countries of the Finns.

1. European Scythians. See above; † 200 years after C.
2. Sarmates? † 400 after C.
3. Iazyges, (the Iatwinges mentioned in the history of Poland); † 1268.
4. Fenni of Tacitus, Zoumi (Suome of Strabo.) (M.B.)
5. Æstii or Ehstes? See above.
6. Scyri, Heruli, &c.? (Lelewel.)
7. European Huns, Ounni and Chuni of the ancient geographers.
   a. Turco-Mogul race.
8. Unknown races conquered by the Huns.

ACTUAL NATIONS AND LIVING LANGUAGES.

A. *Pure Finnic race.* (Adelung, Porthan, Pallas.)

1. Finnic or Suome.
   a. Finnic dialect, confined to the south.
   b. Twastian ——, divided into
      α, Twastian.
      β, Satacundian.
      γ, Ostrobothnian.
   c. Carelian or Kyriala, divided into
      α, Dialect of Savolux.
      β, —— Ingria.
      γ, —— Rautalamb.
      δ, —— Carelia and Olonetz, &c.
      ε, —— Cayanian.
2. Ehstes, probably the descendants of the Æstii.
   a. Ehste proper, divided into

α, Dialect of Revel or Harria.
β, ——— Dorpat or Unganian.
γ, ——— Oesel.
b. Liwes or Livonians.
α, Old Lieve dialect.
β, Krevinian.

B. *Mixed Finnic Race.*

1. Permiakes or Biarmians, a race little known, mixed with the Finns and Scandinavians.
   Bairmian language divided into two dialects.
   α, Bairmian Proper.
   β, Siraine.
2. Hungarians or Magyars, Finns subdued by the Turks, and by an unknown race from the Ural mountains (Gyarmathy Sainovicz.)
   Magyar a written language.
   a. Dialect of Raab in the west.
   b. ——— Debretzin in the east.
   c. ——— the Szekles, a tribe of Transylvania.
3. Laplanders, a Finnic branch, mixed with a tribe of the Huns, (Huns of Scandinavia.)

GERMANIC NATIONS.

4. Teutonic branch on the Rhine and the Danube.

ANCIENT TRIBES AND DIALECTS.

Bastarnæ ×? ?	Unknown dialect—See Slavonians.
Suevi or wanderers.	Ancient Suevic now unknown.
Marcomanni, Quadi, Taurisci.	High Teutonic dialect.
Boiowarii.	A mixed dialect.
Istœvones, more recently denominated Franci. Hermunduri or Hermiones. Chatti.	Franck (Gley.)
Alemanni,	Germanic, (Hebel.)

MODERN TRIBES AND LIVING DIALECTS.

1. Swiss (descendants of the Helvetian Celts.)
   a. Dialect of Bern and Argovia.
   b. ——— of the valley of Hasli.

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c. Dialect of Friburg.
d. ——— of Mistenlach.
e. ——— of Appenzell.
f. ——— of the Grisons.

2. People on the Rhine.
a. Dialect of Alsace.
b. ——— Suabia.
α, Dialect of the Black Forest, or Upper Suabia.
β, ——— of Baar.
γ, ——— of the valley of Neckar or Wurtemburg.
δ, ——— of Vindelicia, (Augsburg, Ulm, &c.)
c. Dialect of the Palatinate.
α, German Wasgovian.
β, Dialect of Westerwald.

3. People on the Danube.
a. Bavarians.
α, Dialect of Munich.
β, ——— of Hohen-Schwangen.
γ, ——— of Saltzburg.
b. Tyrolian.
α, Dialect of the valley of Zell.
β, ——— valley of Inn.
γ, ——— of Lientz.
c. Austrian.
α, Dialect of Lower Austria, (four varieties.)
β, ——— of Upper Austria.
γ, ——— of Styria, (six varieties, among others, those of the vallies of Ens and Murr.)
δ, ——— of Carinthia.
ε, ——— of Carniola.
ζ, ——— of the Gottschewarians.
d. Bohemo-Silesian.
α, Silesian and several varieties.
β, Bohemo-German.
γ, Moravo-German, (four varieties.)
δ, Hungaro-German, (Idem.)

4. Franco-Saxons, or central Germans.
a. Living Dialects.
α, Dialect of Hesse.
β, ——— of Franconia, (Nuremberg, Anspach, &c.)
γ, ——— of the Rhœn mountains, &c.
δ, ———of Eichsfeld.
ε, ——— of Thuringia.
ζ, ——— of Ertzgebirge.
η, ——— of Misnia, (or modern Upper Saxon.)
θ, ——— of Livonia, and Esthonia.

ι, Dialect of the Saxons of Transylvania.
b. Written language, High German, or the modern dialect of Misnia.

B. *Cimbro-Saxon Nations on the plains and the shores of the Baltic and North Seas.*

ANCIENT STATES.

Cimbri, × (according to others, Scandinavian Iotes.)
Angli.
Saxones, (Ingævones of the Romans.)
Heruli? †?
Longobardi, or the Vinuli of Cimbria, ×
Vinulic Dialect.
Semnones? ×? (rather Slavo-Wendes.)
Cherusci, (mixed with the Francs.)
Bucteri and Chauci, Idem, ×
Frisones.
Batavi, according to the Romans, a colony of the Chatti.
Menapii, &c. ×
Tungri.

MODERN DIVISIONS.

1. Saxons or Low Germans.
   a. Saxon or the Dialect of Lower Saxony.
      α, Polished dialect of Hamburg.
      β, ——— of Holstein.
      γ, ——— of Sleswick, between the Sley and the Eyder.
      δ, ——— of the Marsches or Low Country.
      ι, ——— Hanoverian, (several varieties.)
      ζ, ——— of the Hartz Miners.
      η, ——— of Pregnitz, (derived from the Longobardo-Cimbric.
   b. Eastern Saxon.
      α, Dialect of Brandenburg.
      β, ——— modern Prussian since the year 1400.
      γ, ——— modern Pomeranian.
      δ, ——— Rugian.
      ι, ——— Mecklenburg.
   c. Westphalian or Western Saxon.
      α, Dialect of Bremen.
      β, ——— Central Westphalia.
      γ, ——— the ancient Duchy of Engern, probably the Angrivarian × (M. Weddigen.)
      δ, Dialect of Cologne.
      ι, ——— Cleves, &c. &c.

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2. Frieslanders.

* Ancient Frieslandic.

Modern Dialects.

a. Pure Frieslandic.

α, Frieslanders of the north or Cimbria, dialects of Bredsted, Husum, Eyderstedt †, the islands.

β, Frieslanders of Westphalia, tribes and dialects of Rustringen, Wursten, Saterland.

γ, Frieslanders of Batavia, tribes and dialects: 1st, Frieslandic; 2d, Frieslandic of Molckwer (Anglo-Frieslandic;) 3d, Frieslandic of Hindelopen.

b. Modern Batavian.

α, Dutch, a written and polished language.

β, Flemish, Idem idem.

γ, Dialect of Gueldres.

δ, ——— of Zealand and Dutch Flanders.

ε, ——— of Kemperland, mixed with Teutonic or High German.

ζ, ——— of Bois-le-Duc.

C. *Scandinavian or Normanno-Gothic Branch.*

ANCIENT TRIBES AND DIALECTS.

Iotes.
Goths.
Mannes.
Vanes, &c.

States formerly settled in Scandinavia. (Alvismal.)

Ancient Iotic, Low Scandinavian, ancient Gothic, High Scandinavian source of modern languages.

Manheimic, Vandalic?

Alani?
Rhos or Roxolani?
Gothones (Gulay of the Lithuanians.)
Heruli. (M. de Suhm.)
Segri.
Longobardi or Vinuli, (emigrants.)
Vandali.
Iuthungi.
Burgundiones.

People of Scandinavian origin, mixed with the Slavonians, Wendes, and other conquered nations.

Alanic, similar to the Gothic †.

a. Rhos Alanic (× Vater.)

Ancient Gothic.

a. Ostrogothic (×in Ukraine and Italy.)

b. Visigothic in Poland and Spain.

c. Mesogothic.

Herulic, little known, mixed, according to some writers, with the Lithuanian.

Longobardic, probably an Iotic or Cimbrian dialect.

Burgundian, perhaps a Norman dialect, mixed with the Wendes.

Norman or the general language of the eighth and ninth centuries, (Alt-Nordisch of Grimm.)

1. Norwegian, (Norrena) of the the tenth and eleventh centuries.
   a. Islandic, written language of the Sagas.
   b. Norwegian of the central vallies.
   c. Western Dalecarlian, or (Dalska.)
   d. Dialect of the Faroe Islands.
   e. Norse of the Shetland Islands.
2. Swedish (Swensk) since 1400.
   a. Swedish, a written language.
      α, Dialect of Upland.
      β, ——— of Norland.
      γ, Eastern Dalecarlian, (a more recent dialect.)
      δ, Swedish dialect of Finland and other varieties.
   b. Modern Gothic.
      α, Westro-Gothic.
      β, Ostro-Gothic.
      γ, Dialect of Werneland; Dal.
      δ, ——— of Smoland.
      ι, ——— of the island of Runæ in Livonia.
3. Danish, (Dansk) since 1400.
   a. Danish.
      α, Dialects of the Danish Islands.
      β, ——— of Scania, to 1660.
      γ, ——— of the Island of Bornholm, (the ancient dialect in the 12th century.)
      δ, Modern Norwegian, (norsk) in the towns and low vallies.
   b. Jutlandick or modern Iotic.
      α, Normanno-Iotic in the north and west.
      β, Dano-Iotic.
      γ, Anglo-Iotic in the district of Anglen.

D. *Anglo-British.*

ANCIENT INHABITANTS AND DIALECTS.

Belges. Cumbri.	See below, Celtic nation.
Gauls, Romans.	Romana rustica ×.
Ancient Germans, or Scandinavians. (Tacitus.)	Ancient Gallic or Scandinavian dialect.

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100 years before C. ×

Angles. Saxons. — Anglo-Saxon, 449—900 ×. Anglian, north of the Thames. Saxon, south of the Thames.

Jutlanders. — Jotic in Kent.

Danes. — Dano-Saxon, 800—1040 ×.

Normans. — French dialect—Neustrian, from 1066 ×.

LIVING LANGUAGES.

English.

a. Dialect.

β, ——— of Oxford and the central counties.

γ, ——— of Somersetshire.

δ, ——— of Wales.

ε, ——— of the Irish.

ζ, ——— of Wexfordshire.

η, ——— of Berkshire.

b. Anglo-Northumbrian.

α, Dialect of Yorkshire.

β, ——— Lancashire.

γ, ——— Cumberland and Westmoreland.

c. Scots, Anglo-Scandinavian.

α, Lowland Scots.

β, Border dialect.

γ, Scottish dialect in Ireland (Ulster.)

δ, ——— in the Orkney Islands.

d. Anglo-American.

VI. Celtic Nations.

1. Celts on the Danube. Dialects now unknown.
   a. Helvetii †.
   b. Boii ×.
   c. Scordisci †.
   d. Albani in Illyria? Celtic words in the Albanian language.
   e. Cotini in Sarmatia, (Tacitus.)
2. Celto-Italians, ×. Dialects little known.
   a. Ligures or Ligyes, as far as the Rhone.
   b. Insubri, Cenomani, &c.
   c. Rhasenæ or Etrurians?
   d. Ombri, &c. &c.

   See above, Pelasgo-Italians.
3. Celto-Gauls. Celtic language.
   a. Salyes.
   b. Allobroges, &c. (Tribes of the Alps.)
   c. Volcæ, perhaps Belges.

d. Arverni, (ausi Latio se dicere fratres.)
e. Ædui, Sequani, Helvetii.
f. Bituriges, &c. &c.
g. Pictones, Santones, &c.
h. Veneti, &c.
i. Carnutes, Cenomani, Turones, &c. (Celtic of the Druids.)
k. Colonies in the British Islands.
* Picti?

1. Colonies in Spain. Celtiberian language.
α, Celtiberians divided into six tribes.

Berones.	Lusones.
Pelendones.	Belli.
Arevaci.	Ditthi.

β, Celtici on the Anas.

4. Celto-Hibernians.
a. Ierni (Iverni, Hiberni) in Ireland. Ancient Erse?
b. Scoti, settled in Scotland.
c. Silures, in South Wales ×.
d. Damnonii in Cornwall ×.
e. The Celts of Galicia.
α, Artabres or Arotrebes.
β, Nerii.
γ, Præsamarcæ.
δ, Tamarici.
f. The Oystrimnes.

5. Celto-Germans or Belgians. Belgic language, or Celto-Germanic.
a. Continental Belges.
α, Belges.
β, Treveri, Leuci, &c.
γ, Nervii.
δ, Morini.
ε, Menapii, Tungri, &c. (See above.)
b. Insular Belges or Celto-Britons, or Cumbres +—Language. Celto-Breton or Cumbrian or Cambrian.
α, Belgæ of Wiltshire, Atrebates, &c.
β, Cantii.
γ, Brigantes, Parisii, &c.
δ, Menapii, Cauci, &c. of Ireland.
c. Galates or Gauls of Asia. (St. Jerome.)

PEOPLE AND LIVING LANGUAGES.

a. Celts. The Irish or Ires.
b. Caledonians or Highlanders.
} Gallic language. {
a. Erse dialect or Erinach.
b. ——— Caldonach.

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α, In the Highlands.
β, In Ulster.
γ, Manck, in the Isle of Man.
δ, Walden in Essex.

2. Kumbres or Celto-Belgians.
   a. Welsh. — Welsh language.
      a. Dialect of Wales.
      b. ——— of Cornwall.

VII. Iberian nations.

1. Turdetani. — Unknown dialect, spoken about 6000 years ago. (Strabo.)
2. Konii, (Cynetes, Cynesii.)
   * Concanni.
3. Lusitani. — Unknown dialect †.
4. Kallaiki or Gallæci. — Probably an unknown branch of the Celts ×.
5. Astures. — Idem.
6. Vaccæi. — Idem.
7. Vettones. — Idem.
8. Carpetani.
9. Oretani.
10. Editani.
11. Bastetani.
12. Contestani. — Unknown dialects of the Iberian language ×.
13. Ilergetes. — Dialect of the Bask †. (M.B.
    * Vescitania, Osca.
14. Ilercaones.
15. Laletani.
16. Cerretani. — Unknown Iberian dialects.
17. Aquitani. — Bask.
18. Cantabri. — Idem.
19. Vascones. — Bask. (Humboldt.)

VIII. Celto-Latins.

* Romana Rustica, the common source of many languages.

1. Italo-French dialects.

α, Dialect of Piemont.
β, ——— of Friuli, Fassa, Livina-longa.
b. Liguro-Italian dialects.
α, Genoese or Zenese.
β, Dialect of Monaco.
γ, ——— of Nice.
δ, ——— of Estragnolles.
c. Lombard dialects.
α, Milanese and some others.
β, Bergamask.
γ, Brescian.
δ, Modenese.
ι, Bolognese.
ζ, Paduan.

2. Dialect of the south and east of Italy.
α, Venetian, (a written and polished dialect.)
β, Dalmatian-Italian.
γ, Corfiote.
δ, Zantiote.
ι, Italian as spoken in some islands of the Archipelago.
b. Tuscan dialects.
α, Pure Tuscan, confined to the learned and higher classes.
β, Vulgar Florentine.
γ, Siennese or Sanese, (written and polished.)
δ, Pisan.
ι, Luchese.
ζ, Pistoyan.
η, Arrezan and several varieties.
* Dialects of Ombria and the Marches.
c. Ausonian dialects.
α, Roman, a polished dialect.
* Transteverine, a vulgar jargon.
β, Sabine.
γ, Neapolitan, (a written dialect.)
δ, Calabrian.
ι, Apulian.
ζ, Tarentine, or Greco-Apulian.
η, Dialect of Bitonto.

3. Insular Italian.
a. Sicilian.
α, Sicilian of the 12th century, (a written language, adapted for poetry.)
* Dialects little known.
b. Sardinian.
α, Sarde divided into two dialects.

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I. Campidanese, (a written dialect.)
2. Al Capo di Sopra.
β, Tuscan of Sassari, &c.
γ, Algarese. (D'Algheri.)
c. Corsican.

Romanic. (Provençal, Occitanic.)

a. Romanic of the Alps.
1. Rhetian or Romanic of the Grisons and the Tyrol.
α, Dialect of the mountainous districts in the Grisons. 1st, of Schams: 2d, of Heinzenburg; 3d, of Domlesch; 4th, of Oberhalbstein: 5th, of Tusis.
β, The Rumonic, spoken in the plains and the mountains.
γ, The Ladinum at Coire.
δ, Gardena in the valley of Groden.
2. The Valaisan, an ancient Celto-Roman dialect (Low Valais.)
3. Helvetian of Friburg.
α, *Gruverin* in the upper districts.
β, Quetzo in the centre.
γ, Broyar in the low districts.
b. Provençal.
1. Provençal (a written language.)
α, Dialect of Aire.
β, ——— of Berry.
2. Languedocian.
α, Dialect of Toulouse, or the Moundi; (a written language.)
β, ——— of Nisme.
γ, ——— of Nice and the neighbourhood.
δ, Rovergat.
ε, Valayen.
3. Dauphinese, mixed with the Celtic (a written language.)
α, The *Bressan.*
β, Dialect of Bugey.
4. Gascon.
α, Gascon of Gascony.
β, Tolosan; spoken by the common people; different from the Moundi.
γ, Bearnais.
δ, Limosin and Perigourdin.
c. Romanic Iberian.
1. Ancient Limosin.
2. Catalonian.
3. Valencian (a written language.)
4. Dialect of Majorca.

* Lingua Franca, a mixed dialect, of which the Catalonian, Limosin, Sicilian, and Arabian, formed the greatest part.

C. *(Spanish,)* divided into two branches.

a. Castillian, (a written and polished language, called in the provinces, el romanze.)
   1. Dialect of Toledo, (the purest.)
   2. ——— of Leon and the Asturias.
   3. Aragonian.
   4. Andalusian.
   5. Murcian.

b. Galician or Galego.
   1. Galego.
   2. Portuguese, (a written language.)
   3. Dialects of Alentejo, Beira and Minho.
   4. ——— Algarva.

D. French.

LANGUAGES OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

a. Celto-Latin of the north, (language of the Troveres.) ×
b. Celto-Latin of the west and the centre. ×
c. Vulgar Celto-Latin, (language of the common people in Gascony.) ×
d. Pure Celto-Latin or ancient provençal, (language of the Troubadours.) ×

MODERN LANGUAGES.

1. French, (social language of Europe.)
   a. Ancient dialects in the north of France.
      1. Wallon or Rouchi at Namur and Liege.
      2. French Flemish.
      3. ——— of Picardy and Artois.

      } Branches of the Franco Celto-Latin in the north.

   b. Modern dialects of the north.
      1. Norman.
      2. Vulgar French, (Isle of France.)
      3. Burgundian.
      4. French of Orleans.
      5. Angevin.
      6. Canadian French (from the banks of the Loire.)

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c. Dialects of the central and western provinces:
   1. Dialect of Auvergne.
   2. ——— of Poitou, or Pictavium.
   3. ——— of La Vendée.
   4. Low Breton.

   } The Celtic pronounciation is still retained in these dialects.

   5. Dialect of Berri.
   6. Bordelais and other Gascon dialects.

d. Eastern dialects.
   1. Dialect of Franche Comté.
   2. Vaudois or Reman (Roman.)
   3. Dialect of Savoy.
   4. ——— of Lyons.
   5. ——— of the towns in Dauphiny.

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EUROPE.—INTRODUCTION.

Physical Description of Turkey in Europe.

It is time to give an account of those countries from which science, letters and the fine arts have been spread over Europe. Greece may be considered the native country of the human race, for its philosophers, patriots and men of genius have by their writings or their virtues contributed to the civilization of the world. Every friend of humanity must deplore the lamentable condition of that fertile peninsula watered by the Danube on the north, by the Euxine on the east, the Egean and the Mediterranean on the south, and the Adriatic on the west. Mount Hemus is still covered with verdant forests; the plains of Thrace, Macedonia and Thessaly yield abundant and easy harvests to the husbandman; a thousand ports and a thousand gulfs are observed on the coasts, the peninsulas and islands; the calm billows of these tranquil seas bathe the base of mountains covered with vines and olive trees. But the populous and numerous towns mentioned by ancient writers have been changed into deserts under a despotic government. Ruins and mountains attest the existence of ancient Greece.

Chains of mountains.

Four or five chains extend from the regions of Upper Macedonia; the first passes northwards and reaches the banks of the Danube in the neighbourhood of Orsova, or

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joins by means of the rocks which confine the bed of that river a branch of the Transylvanian mountains; it connects likewise the Carpathian range with that of Hemus. The second and the most considerable extends eastwards, and separates Bulgaria from Romania or Thrace;[a] its steep rocks bound part of the Black Sea, one of its branches reaches towards Constantinople and the Dardanelles; it is what is strictly called the chain of Hemus, the Emine-Dag or Balkan of the Turks. A third chain commences in a south-east direction at the central ridge of Upper Macedonia, forms the Rhodope of the ancients, or the Despoti-Dag of the Turks; a very elevated plain connects its base with that of Hemus, and the Hebrus flows along that valley. A fourth chain, which is little known, extends towards the west, it is the Albius or Albanus of the ancients, and consists of the mountains of Bosnia and Dalmatia; lastly, a fifth branch, which bends towards the south and the south-west, is connected with all the mountains in Epirus, Greece Proper and the Archipelago.

Hemus proper.

It is at present impossible to describe correctly the greater number of these chains: the notices left us by the ancients are much too vague. Mount Hemus is compared with the Alps, but under the name of Hemus the ancients included all the mountains which separate the feeders of the Danube and Adriatic from the waters that flow into the Archipelago. Ptolemy traces Hemus in this manner from the south-west to north-east; modern travellers have observed many steep rocks and intricate passes in Hemus Proper or the Balkan; but according to their accounts none of them are higher than the Appenines, and as the snow melts on the summits, the elevation cannot exceed seven or eight thousand feet. The ascent is gentle on the north-west side to the Gate of Trajan, a famous pass between Sophia and Philippopoli, but the descent towards the south-east is steep and rugged.

[a] Strabo, Book VII.

Rhodope or Despoti-Dag is steep and difficult of access; its top is covered with verdant meadows and forests, the weary traveller reposes under their shade.[b] Rhodope.

Dardanian mountains.

The highest mountains are situated to the north of Macedonia in the ancient Dardania. The Scomius, at present the Dupindcha, the Scardus which the moderns call indifferently Schar-Dag and Monte Argentaro, form a chain, of which one writer says that he saw two summits, the Wysoka and the Rulla, that are covered with perpetual snow;[c] another author insists that the range has been called Argentaro from the lustre of its sides, which are composed of selenite;[d] the statements of both must be considered doubtful, until more correct observations are made in these countries. It is probable that Upper Macedonia forms, like Transylvania, a table land of an elevation from two to three thousand feet, that it is crowned on one side by the chain already mentioned, and that it terminates at Mount Bora. The fertile basin of Salonica is encompassed with heights which are a continuation of the same table land; Atlas, a separate and majestic mountain, is not higher than 5000 feet.

Pindus. Pindus, now Metzova, is probably the nucleus of the mountains in the Greek peninsula; its rocks, forests and poetic fountains have of late given rise to many interesting observations, but its elevation is still unknown. The numerous vallies on its sides are covered with trees; snow falls generally during the month of October on all its summits, and two of them, Dokimi and Péristera, are covered with snow almost the whole year;[e] their height may be vaguely estimated at eight or nine thousand feet. The mountains of Epirus extend to the shores of the sea; Thessaly is encompassed with hills, and forms an amphi-

[b] Paul Lucas, p. xxvi. xxvii.

[c] Driesch, Embassy to Constantinople.

[d] Brown, chap. 15.

[e] Pouqueville, Deuxieme Voyage, t. II. 178, 233; t. III. 46, &c.

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theatre on which seventy-five towns were in ancient times built.[f]

Olympus.

Olympus or the modern Lacha is not, according to Xenagoras, more than 5,760 feet; according to Bernouilli it is 6,120; its rugged and precipitous rocks give it a picturesque and sublime appearance; the pass of Platamona on the north of Olympus, is encompassed with perpendicular rocks, that rise to the height of 3000 feet; the famous pass of Thermopylæ is not so imposing, but neither can vie with the one in the ancient Megaris, between the Scironian rocks and the Salonic gulf. Dark and steep rocks hang above the sea, the waves resound beneath their base, the traveller walks along a narrow path near these precipices, and appears suspended between the ocean and the sky.[g]

Parnassus.

The erect and steep summits of the ancient Parnassus or the present Liakoura are very lofty, but although they have been seen by many travellers, they have been measured by none. The middle districts of the Peloponnesus form an elevated ridge, and several mountainous groups arise from it; of these Culmos or the ancient Cyllene is said to be the highest central point,[h] and Cape Matapan or the ancient Tænarus, which extends farthest to the south, forms the southern extremity of the European continent.

The coasts of Albania descend gradually towards the gulf of Drino, and rise suddenly near the entrance of the Adriatic. Rocks are heaped above rocks, their summits reach to the clouds, their sides are rent by lightning, the sea which washes them is always tempestuous, and the shores are covered with the wrecks of vessels. Such are the Acroceraunian mountains, so much dreaded by the ancients; they are now better known by the name of the Monte de Chimera.

[f] Pliny, lib. IV. cap. VII.

[g] The length of the pass is about two miles and a quarter; Spon. Voyage, t. II. p. 171. Chandler, chap. XLIV. p. 198. Wheeler, p. 437. Pliny, lib. II. cap. 47. Pausanias, lib. I. cap. 45. Chateaubriand, &c.

[h] Pouqueville, iv. 335, 349.

The coasts of the Ionian islands are for the most part very steep, the calcareous rocks of Leucade rise from the bottom of a deep and stormy sea, they were the cause of much alarm to mariners in the time of Æneas and Ulysses, they are considered dangerous even in the present day.

Insular chains.

The island of Candia or Crete is supposed to be a continuation of the mountainous districts which extend along Greece and the Peloponnesus, and the Cyclades are said to be the scattered fragments of two small chains, the one of which extends from Athens, the other from Euboea; thus, as we remove from Hemus, the range becomes gradually irregular, or terminates in detached hills and abrupt rocks; the marks of those changes and revolutions which have altered the surface of our globe are apparent in the south of Greece.

Mountains in the island of Andros.

It has been maintained that there are some very high mountains in the Archipelago; a learned Greek physician declares that the summits of the mountains in the island of Andros are covered all the year with snow.[i] If that statement were correct, it might be concluded that the most elevated points in the whole of Greece are situated in that island; philosophers might expect to find there the remains of an immense volcano, an Etna that has been extinguished for ages. So extraordinary a fact requires to be confirmed by better evidence before it can be generally believed; the author may have perhaps confounded these mountains with others in Euboea.

The seas and waters which surround and intersect Greece shall be enumerated before we enter into any details concerning its soil and climate.

Pontus Euxinus.

The Pontus Euxinus is now probably in the same state that it was in the earliest historick age; the western part is shallow, but the eastern, which is very deep, has been attempted to be fathomed in some places without success.[k] The water of that sea is in many places as fresh as that of

[i] Zallony, Voyage, p. 34.

[k] Aristotle, Meteor. lib. I. cap. XII.

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the rivers which flow into it.[l] The evaporation of the fresh water facilitates the formation of ice, which is not uncommon;[m] the congelation is thus occasioned by the freshness of the water, and that large sea is sometimes frozen to a considerable distance from the shore.[n] Shoals of fish arrive there in the spring of the year from the extremity of the Mediterranean, and deposit their spawn in the muddy and fresh water of the Euxine, where animals of prey never enter; the same shoals return to the Mediterranean at the approach of winter.[o]

The Pontus Euxinus is nothing more than a vast lake; it bears all the marks of one, flows like those in North America through a kind of a river which forms at first the narrow channel of Constantinople or the Thracian Bosphorus, it then assumes the appearance of a small lake that is called the Propontis or the sea of Marmora,[p] passes towards the south-west, and takes anew the form of a large river which has been termed the Hellespont or the Dardanelles. These channels resemble many other outlets of lakes, the great body of water that flows through so narrow an opening need not excite wonder, although it has given rise to various hypotheses.

Hypothesis concerning the Bosphorus.

According to M. Olivier, a range of schistus hills covered with trees, and broken only by some fertile vallies, extends along the channel of Constantinople or the Bosphorus to the village of Buyuk-Dere,[q] but beyond it in the direction towards the Black Sea, both sides bear evident marks of their volcanic origin. "I observed everywhere," says that writer, "rocks more or less changed by decomposition, jaspers and cornelians in confused heaps,

[l] Arrian, Periplus, ap. Geog. Minores Hudsonii, t. I. p. 8. Isidorus ex Sallustio, lib. XIII. c. XVI. Senec. in Medea, act. II.

[m] Ammian. Marcellin. lib. XXII. Mem. de l'Academie des Inscrip. lib. XXXII. p. 639. Chardin, Voyages.

[n] Herod. ap. Macrob. lib. VII. Tournefort, t. II. p. 130.

[o] Arist. Hist. Anim. lib. VI. cap. XVII—lib. VII. c. XIX. Plin. IX. cap. XV. Fac. Annal. XII. cap. LXIII. Ælian. lib. IX. cap. XLIX.

[p] Probably from the Greek word μαρμαίρω, resplendeo.

[q] Olivier, Voyage, &c. t. I. p. LXI.

veins of agate and chalcedony amidst porphyry altered in the same manner. A substance not very solid, and in many places almost decomposed, is formed by fragments of trap cemented in calcareous spar; lastly, a continuation of solid trap extends to the distance of more than half a league." It is there that Olivier and Choiseul-Gouffier place the remains of a volcano which must have opened a passage for the Black Sea. It has been proved that the substances above mentioned are not volcanic by M. Faujas-Saint-Fond, who analyzed the specimens sent to Paris; the only probable change, therefore, that has happened in the Bosphorus is either the gradual sinking or sudden demolition of a barrier of rocks like that at the falls of Niagara. Such a revolution must have been anterior to the commencement of profane history; since that time, it may be shown from the details of Scylax, and the accounts of the Argonauts, that the circumference of the Pontus Euxinus has remained the same.

Archipelago.

The Bosphorus forms the neck of the Egean sea, which has been incorrectly called the Archipelago;[r] the calcareous coasts that bound the greater part of it are everywhere very steep; the rocks of which the strata are placed vertically, as if they had been overturned, are one of the many indications of the successive changes or physical revolutions in that part of Greece. The gulfs of Salonica, Athens and several others intersect the neighbouring continents; such phenomena may serve to illustrate the theories or reasonings of geologists, but some Greek naturalists seem to have forgotten that whatever physical changes may have happened on these seas, few or none have taken place since the time at which history begins to dawn, or during a period of 3000 years. The ruins of buildings, harbours or quays have blocked the narrow strait on which Cyzicus was built, and changed the island

[r] Archipelago is perhaps an ancient and popular name, Αιγαιον πελαγος, *the Greek sea*, or, according to others, Αρχι πελαγος, *the principal or royal sea*.

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of Cyzicum into a peninsula.[s] Similar changes have been produced by littoral deposits that cannot be carried off by any current in small, narrow and shallow seas, like the one at the pass of Thermopylæ.

No alterations can be discovered on the southern coasts of the Mediterranean, because that sea is immense, if contrasted with the Archipelago; the rocks of the Strophades remain erect, and the port of Pylos is neither blocked nor contracted; the narrow isthmus of Leucade has been cut by the labour of man.[t] If any isles among the Echinades are now joined to the continent, the cause must be attributed to the alluvial deposits carried down by the Aspro-Potamo.

Rivers and streams.

The basin of the Danube includes more than a third part of Turkey in Europe; the Drino in Bosnia, and the Morawa in Servia enter the Danube before it reaches the cataracts of Tachtali and Demir-Kapi; ten other feeders descend from Hemus; but the only considerable rivers, as the Aluta in Wallachia, the Pruth and Sereth in Moldavia, flow from the Carpathian mountains.

The Albanian Drino discharges itself into the basin of the Adriatic, and the southern branch of that river, or the Black Drino receives the waters of the lake Ochrida. The Boiana serves as an outlet for the picturesque and large lake of Scutari. The Aous or the Voyoussa flows from Pindus to the Adriatic.

The basin of the Maritza or the ancient Hebrus occupies the greater part of Romelia; there is only one outlet in that elevated plain and the Hebrus escapes by it, and after crossing a marshy lake from which its modern name is derived, enters the Archipelago. The Axius or the Vardar of the moderns, and all the rivers of Macedonia except the Strymon meet in the gulf of Salonica, a kind of delta which is formed by means of their concourse in-

[s] Strabo, liber XII. p. 396.
[t] Idem, liber I. p. 41.

creases gradually above the gulf. The rivers in the southern peninsula or in Greece are inconsiderable, but their classical celebrity entitles them to notice.

Vale of Tempe.

The plain of Thessaly is surrounded in every direction except the south-east with high mountains, and it is asked why the Peneus does not pass along the lowest side; the cause must without doubt be attributed to some local obstacle by which its course is diverted towards the lofty heights of Olympus; it then descends by the deep and narrow valley of Tempe into the sea. The vale extends from the south-west to the north-east,[u] its length is about forty stadia or a league and a half;[x] its breadth, although in general a stadium and a half, is in one place not more than a hundred feet.[y] The calm streams of the Peneus water the valley under the shade of poplars or plane trees, near rocks overspread with ivy, and green and fertile hills; several verdant and beautiful islands have been discovered on the river, but its banks are suddenly contracted, rocks are confusedly heaped on rocks, and its streams are precipitated with a loud noise across a narrow pass, but beyond it the waters resume their tranquil course, and mingle with the sea.

Ancient Thessalonian lake.

The following tradition was very generally believed in ancient times, the Peneus, it is said, having at one period no outlet, formed a great lake, which covered a part of Thessaly, particularly the Pelasgic plain to the south of Larissa. The valley of Tempe was opened by an earthquake, the lake flowed into the sea, and the dry land gradually appeared.[z] The inhabitants of that region instituted a festival to commemorate an event by which the face of their

[u] Pococke, vol. III. p. 152.

[x] Pliny, vol. III. lib. i. 44. c. vi.

[y] Plin. vol. III. Ælian. Var. Hist. l. III. c. I. Voyage d'Anacharsis, III. c. XXXV. p. 367.—third edition.

[z] Herodot. l. VII. c. CXXIX. Strabo, l. IX. p. 296. Senec. Quæst. Natur. l. VI.

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country had been changed. [a] But Theophrastus having observed that the climate of Thessaly was colder in his time, attributes it to the artificial channels, by means of which the stagnant waters had been drained; [b] some of the poets corroborate that opinion, and claim for Hercules the glory of having opened a passage for the Peneus. According to some authors, the deluge in the time of Deucalion extended over the whole earth; it is more generally supposed to have been a partial inundation of Thessaly, which lasted three months; it may be accounted for by admitting that the channel of the Peneus was blocked either by an earthquake during which some rocks were overturned and thus formed an effectual barrier for its course, or by excessive rains, which occasioned a sudden and extraordinary augmentation of its waters. [c]

The probability of these different traditions, which are interesting in their relation to physical geography, can only be determined by new observations made in that part of Greece.

Physical changes in Beotia.

The small basin which forms the greater part of Beotia, may give rise to inquiries of a different nature. The rivers or rather the streams unite in a marshy lake called in ancient times the *Copais*; it is surrounded on all sides by mountains, and has no apparent issue; had not concealed passages for the flux of its water been formed by nature and the efforts of man, it might have covered perhaps the whole of Beotia. [d] The Copais terminates on the side next the shore in three bays that extend within a foot of Mount Ptous, which is situated between the lake and

[a] Athen. l. XIV. p. 639. Ælian. Var. Hist. l. III. c. I. Meursii Græcia, in voce Peloria.

[b] Theophr. de Causis Plant. l. V. c. XX.

[c] Freret, Memoire sur les deluges d'Ogyges et de Deucalion, Acad. des Inscrip. t. XXIII. p. 129.

[d] Strabo, l. IX. p. 280.

the sea. From the bottom of each bay a number of channels extend along the mountain, some of them are thirty stadia in length, or more than a league, others are still longer.[e] Deep pits have been dug at equal distances on the mountain, by that means the channels are cleared and the waters have a free passage. These works, immense as they are, must have been completed at a very remote epoch, no information as to the period can be obtained from the earliest history or tradition. Strabo says that it was generally admitted in his time that the ground now covered by the lake was formerly very fertile, and that its culture was a source of wealth to the inhabitants of Orchomenus.[f] The same writer has described the whole district. "The people, in that part of Beotia are exposed to great inconvenience from the many deep caverns and clefts below the ground, the subterranean issues are sometimes obstructed by dreadful earthquakes, or by the same cause new passages are opened. The streams are diverted into concealed channels, or changed by the sinking of the surface into marshes and lakes. Thus some towns have been observed on the banks of a lake, which were formerly situated in the middle of a plain; some too have been nearly overwhelmed by inundations, and abandoned by their inhabitants, who built others of the same name."

These local revolutions have given rise to many fables concerning the deluge in the time of Ogyges, king of Beotia.

Similar phenomena may be observed on the central ridge of the Peloponnesus; many of the high vallies are completely inclosed; the Alpheus, the Erasinus, the Stymphalus and other rivers, for want of an outlet, fall into whirlpools, or enter subterraneous channels and re-appear at a considerable distance on the surface of the ground.[g]

[e] Wheeler's Journey through Greece.

[f] Strabo, l. IX. p. 286.

[g] Pausan. l. VII. c. CXXIV. p. 587. Diod. Sic. l. XV. p. 365. Edit. Wessel. Plin. l. II. c. XCII.

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Earthquakes.

The changes produced by the action of subterraneous heat, have been for the last three thousand years, local, insignificant and wholly inadequate to account for the great devastations attributed to them in the systems of hypothetical geology. Earthquakes were not uncommon throughout Laconia, and at one time the proud Lacedemonians were forced to implore their hated rivals of Athens to assist them in building the fallen walls of Lacedemon.[h] Helice was once a flourishing city about twelve stadia from the gulf of Corinth, but in one night it was laid in ruins and all its inhabitants destroyed. The buildings were overthrown by repeated shocks, the sea advanced beyond the shore and inundated the city; the earth sunk to a great depth; the tops of the highest houses were seen above the water.[i]

The changes that took place in the neighbourhood of Træzena are still more extraordinary, Strabo informs us that a plain near Methana of seven stadia in extent, rose from the bottom of the sea, an igneous vapour exhaled from the ocean, and spread around a sulphureous and disagreeable odour.[k]

The soil in the island of Melas or the modern Milo is hollow and spungy; crystallizations of alum are suspended from the roofs of the caverns, the clefts in the rocks are filled with fragments of native sulphur, warm mineral springs flow in every direction, a sulphureous vapour rises from all the marshes;[l] such is the account which Pliny gives of the island, and the accuracy of his description has been confirmed by modern travellers. The island of Argentera is wholly composed of volcanic matter;[m] we are led by every appearance to believe that the small group in the vicinity was at one time the summit of a volcano.

Volcanic islands.

Another group, of which the modern Santorin or the

[h] Pausan. l. VIII. c. VII. XIV. XXII. XXIII.
[i] Strabo, l. VIII. p. 253. Thucid. l. I. c. CI. Plut. in Cim. p. 489.
[k] Bougainville, Mem. de l'Academie des Inscrip. t. XXIX. p. 40.
[l] Herod. l. IV. c. CXLV. Hardouin in notis ad Plin. l. II. c. XXIV.
[m] Memoires de Trevoux, 1715, Septembre.

ancient Thera is the largest island, has been very often mentioned in the accounts of volcanoes; Pliny, who supposes that Thera was formed by a volcanic eruption, has been triumphantly refuted by Father Hardouin in his commentaries on Herodotus, abundant proofs however are not wanting as to the existence of an ancient volcano, the crater of which occupied all the basin between Santorin and the smaller islands; the mouth of the crater has been partly overthrown and the aperture enclosed by the accumulation of dust and ashes, several isles have been thus formed, Thera itself has been often shaken. The lava, the ashes and pumice stone discharged from that volcano have covered part of the island;[n] but the greater portion, which consists of a large bed of fine marble, has never been in any way changed by the action of volcanic fire.[o]

Eruptions.

A few rocks, geographers are not agreed as to their names, have been raised or overturned by these eruptions; and it is certain that the appearances exhibited by them must have been fully as grand as any recorded in modern times. Seneca has given a minute account of one eruption, which he copied from the writings of the learned Posidonius.[p] "The sea was suddenly troubled, dense volumes of smoke ascended to the clouds, a passage was opened for the flames, which appeared from time to time like flashes of lightning; heaps of stones fell in every direction, heavy rocks were discharged from the deep, others partly consumed by the action of subterranneous fire, were light as pumice stones. The summit of a mountain was at last seen and rose to a considerable height, it increased gradually in size and formed an island. The depth of that part of the sea is about two hundred paces."

The most minute observations were made on the effects of the eruptions that happened in 1707 and 1712. The new island frequently sunk and gave way in one direction,

[n] Memoires de Trevoux, 1715, Mois de Septembre.

[o] Tournefort, Voyages, t. I. p. 321.

[p] Senec. Quæs. Nat. II. c. XXVI.

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while it rose and became larger in another; several rocks were sometimes seen above the surface of the water, and fell again below it, at last they reappeared and remained stationary.[q] It is evident from these statements that the small islands thus formed must be considered the craters of submarine volcanoes.

Caverns.

The changes occasioned by volcanoes, if rightly estimated, are less extraordinary than others produced by the gradual sinking of the ground in different countries; some well-known caverns in Greece may be mentioned to corroborate this opinion. The labyrinth of Gortyna in the island of Crete is, according to Tournefort,[r] a vast cave, which passes by a thousand windings under a hill in the neighbourhood of Mount Ida, and extends to the south through an immense number of alleys to which there are no outlets; a comparatively large passage has been discovered, it leads to a spacious hall about 1200 paces in length, and seven or eight feet in height, its flat roof, like the most of the strata in these mountains, is formed by a bed of horizontal rocks, the floor is level, the walls have been cut perpendicularly in some places, in others they consist of huge stones which obstruct the entrance, and are heaped together without order; many lateral alleys terminate on both sides of the passage, and in one part the traveller must advance more than a hundred yards on his hands and knees. The cavern, which now affords shelter for bats and other animals, is very dry, no water or moisture has been observed on its sides.

The labyrinth cannot be considered a quarry as Belon supposes, it was originally formed by nature, and afterwards enlarged by the inhabitants, who used it as a place of refuge in time of war; Diodorus says expressly that the Cretans lived at first in caves and caverns.[s]

[q] Mem. des Missionaires de la Compagnie de Jesus dans le Levant, t. I. p. 133.

[r] Tournefort, Voyage du Levant, t. I. p. 65, &c. Belon. Observ. l. I. c. VI. Savary, Lettres sur la Grece, p. 219.

[s] Diod. Sic. l. V. p. 334, edit. Wessel.

The cavity in the island of Antiparos, which is perhaps one of the most remarkable in the world, has been fully described by M. Tournefort; the traveller enters first into a cavern, but after having advanced a short distance, frightful precipices surround him on every side; the only way of descending these steep rocks is by means of ropes and ladders which have been placed across wide and dismal clefts, below them at the depth of 300 fathoms from the surface, is situated a large grotto filled with beautiful stalactites; the height of the grotto is about forty fathoms, its breadth about fifty. Tournefort, who saw all the works of nature with the eye of a botanist, imagined that he had discovered a crystalline garden, which afforded him most satisfactory evidence in support of a new hypothesis on the vegetation of minerals. Cavern in Antiparos.

There is a remarkable cave in the small island of Polycandro, all the concretions in it are ferruginous and of a reddish colour, they resemble so many *spicula*, and are very sharp and brittle, the sides, the roof and ground of the cave are covered with them, some are dark, others glitter like gold.

The cave of Trophonius, a long time the abode of superstition, is still to be seen in Beotia,[t] and that of Corycius is situated to the north of Delphi; although very deep, almost the whole of it is illumined by the light of day; it is so large that all the inhabitants of Delphi went to it for shelter during the invasion of Xerxes.[u] Every part in the neighbourhood of Mount Parnassus abounds in caverns, which were held in great veneration by the common people; it has been supposed that mephitical vapours issued from the spiracles near the celebrated cave of the oracle, above which the pythoness sat on the sacred tripod; the natural effect of the exhalations was to occasion convulsions and those ecstasies which have accompanied in every age the gift of prophecy. Cave of Trophonius.

[t] Gordon's Geography, p. 179. Pausan. l. IX. p. 791, edit. 1696.

[u] Herod. l. VIII. c. XXXVI. Pausan, l. X. c. XXXII. Eschyl. in Eumen. V. 23.

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The lofty chains of Hemus, Scardus and Pindus have not been examined by modern travellers; the barbarism of the inhabitants renders it dangerous to visit them.

It is said that near the torrents of Macedonia, many bones not unlike those of the human body but much larger, have been discovered; in all probability they are the fossil remains of some huge animals that existed in the antediluvian world. Other discoveries more important perhaps, might be made, if the virgin soil in the high districts of Greece were explored by geologists; no mention is made in history of any actual volcano, but the numerous warm and bubbling springs on the mountains seem to indicate their volcanic origin.

Climate.

It has been seen that the elevation of the different parts of Greece is very unequal. "It results from so great an inequality," says Hippocrates, "that the region of winter is sometimes separated from that of summer by a single stadium." The heat is oppressive at the base of Mount Olympus, the cold is extreme at its summit,[x] and spring is the prevailing season on the sides of Pelion and Ossa.[y]

Climate of the mountains.

The soil of Greece rises in the direction of Hemus, thus Upper Macedonia and Thrace are considered cold countries, and in former times the ancients fixed there the residence of Boreas. The same mountains were once inhabited by brave and independent men, their descendants resisted despotism more effectually than the rest of the Greeks; such facts connected with the history and the character of nations are not uninstructive; the Sarres or the people of the mountains in Thrace retained their freedom for a long time; hordes of Turcomans, who cannot be said to have ever submitted to a foreign power, now inhabit these districts and Macedonia. The Illyrians resisted the Macedonian kings and the Roman legions; if the Arnauts or Albanians who wander in the same regions, be not regularly paid, the Turks cannot depend on their

[x] Sonnini, Voyage, t. II. p. 294.

[y] Felix Beaujour, Tableau, &c. t. I. p. 326.

service. The Christian Albanians of Souli rendered themselves illustrious by their heroic achievements during a war that lasted ten years; although the Greeks at Constantinople and Salonica are effeminate and degraded, the mountaineers are not so easily subdued, their ancient courage is not wholly lost, their love of freedom is not extinct. It is needless to mention the Maniote band so often cited to confirm what has been said, but it is not perhaps generally known that the brave and industrious inhabitants of Ambelakia, an insignificant town on the side of Ossa, have often repelled the Ottoman troops, and never suffered a Turk to remain in their district. The Sphachiotes or the people on the White mountains of Crete have recently yielded to their enemies; their subjugation was the effect of civil dissensions, not of the Turkish arms; had the ardour and impetuosity of such men been restrained, had they been better disciplined before they raised the banner of independence, the liberators of Greece might have descended from its mountains. The other inhabitants of the same districts are the fierce and mercenary Albanian, the fanatic Mussulman of Bosnia, and the Servian ready to defend his own possessions, but indifferent about his neighbour's; it is consolatory amidst such disadvantages to reflect that a country like Greece, intersected with mountains, numerous passes and gulfs, contains within itself the elements of freedom.

Greece.

Greece is situated between two seas, and is not for that reason exposed to excessive droughts; but the cold is often more intense than in Italy or Spain, and the cause is owing to its being connected on two sides with the great range of the continent, the temperature of which in equal parallels is always lower towards the centre, and also to its proximity to two great mountainous chains, Hemus and Taurus. The ancients have left us a full account of the prevailing winds in Greece, and of their influence on the seasons; according to Aristotle, none is so prevalent, so dry and cold as the north wind; it is often the forerunner of hail and sometimes of storms; but, although dry

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in the rest of Greece, it is considered a rainy wind in the neighbourhood of the Hellespont and on the coasts of Cyrenaica;[z] it arrives in these two countries from the seas in the immediate vicinity of the Hellespont; the same wind is cold and boisterous on the sides of mount Ida; the ancients thought that it checked the epidemical diseases which devasted Mytelene, and were attributed to the continuance of the south and north-west winds.[a] The north-east wind prevails about the vernal equinox, it drives the clouds slowly before it, and is the harbinger of rain in Attica and in the islands of the Archipelago; surcharged with the mists that rise from the Euxine, it passes above cold countries, and is often accompanied with frost in Wallachia and Moldavia; the east wind, on the contrary, is announced by gentle and refreshing breezes. The south-east wind blows about the winter solstice; warm and dry at first, it becomes gradually humid, and at last brings on rain; Lucretius considered it the cause of the plague which desolated Attica under the reign of Cecrops.[b] The south wind arrives in Greece about the end of autumn, after the winter solstice and at the beginning of spring; some of the ancients supposed it favourable to vegetation, others thought it unhealthy, and the forerunner of pestilential diseases; at all events, it is followed by violent and continued showers. Empedocles had observed that the flames of Etna were always most vivid while the wind blew from the north, and that they became dull and obscure as soon as the dark clouds indicated the approach of southern blasts.[c] Dense vapours rise from the Mediterranean; the excessive moisture brought by the south wind in Greece and Italy is collected in its passage above that sea; the same breezes that proceed from Mount Atlas and other inland chains are cold and dry in some parts of Africa.

[z] Arist. Meteor., l. II. c. VI. probl. 26.
[a] Vitruv. l. I. c. VI.
[b] Lucret. de Rerum Natura, VI. verse 1136.
[c] Strabo, Geog. l. VI. p. 190.

The Zephyr is generally associated with the descriptions of the Greek writers; Aristotle calls it the gentlest of the winds;[d] according to Homer, it reigns in the Elysian fields inhabited by the blessed, governed by Rhadamanthus, and never exposed to the cold of winter; but the same poet, in another part of his writings, places the zephyr near Boreas, and considers it stormy and unhealthy. That apparent contradiction[e] is reconciled by the concurring testimony of the ancients and the moderns; it has been shown that the zephyr near the entrance of the Hellespont or the scene of the Iliad is frequently boisterous, the storms occasioned by it have been fatal to seamen.

Hippocrates declares that the zephyr is a very unwholesome wind in the island of Thasos, and is commonly accompanied with rain on the coasts of Greece;[f] Vitruvius says expressly that the north-west wind, which is not far removed from the zephyr, and included by the ancients under the same denomination, brings thick mists on the Archipelago, and is unhealthy on the coasts of Lesbos opposite Troas.[g]

The north-west wind is very different in different parts of Greece, cold and dry at Chalcis in Euboea, where it blows a short time before or after the winter solstice, it scorches vegetation and burns the trees more effectually than the summer's heat;[h] it proceeds to Euboea from Olympus and is sometimes called by the name of that mountain; but its qualities are changed in its passage across the Egean sea; according to Theophrastus it is rainy at Cnidus and in the island of Rhodes.

The etesian were considered by ancients the most remarkable of the periodical winds in Greece; Aristotle and Etesian.

[d] Arist. Probl. l. XXVI. 16, 51. Herodot. l. VI. Aulus Gell. l. VI. c. II. Lucan. Phars. IX. 447-497.

[e] Iliad. IX. v. 5. Odyss. v. 295. Ibid. XII. 289.

[f] Hippocr. Epid. l. sect. 2. n. 12, &c.

[g] Vitruv. l. VI. c. VI.

[h] Theophrast. Hist. Plant. l. IV. c. XVI. et de Causis Plant. l. V. c. VI.

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Lucretius tell us that these refreshing breezes are felt about the summer solstice, and at the rising of the Canis Minor;[i] in western climates their course is towards the south-west, but they advance in the direction of the south-east in eastern countries. Aristotle says that they blow during the night and cease during the day, from which it might be inferred that they are land winds; Posidonius affirms that they are common within that part of the Mediterranean between Spain and Sardinia;[k] Pliny assigns them the same course in Spain and Aia; Aulus Gellius observing the contradictory statements of certain authors on the subject, sets them all right, and concludes that the etesian winds blow sometimes from different directions.[l]

Ornithian winds.

The Ornithian winds are so called, because about the time they begin, many birds of passage arrive in Greece; these sea breezes commence in spring about seventy days after the winter solstice; they are mild, variable and of shorter duration than the etesian winds; it appears from Pliny's description that the Greeks comprehended by the ornithian winds, all the breezes from the Mediterranean; their direction varying according to that of the coasts might include several points of the compass between the west and south-east.

The narratives of modern travellers accord on the whole with the ancient accounts which have been now stated; one example shall be cited. "During the summer," says Galant,[m] "a west-wind prevails in the neighbourhood of Smyrna, it begins about ten in the morning, and continues increasing till four in the evening;" (that sea-breeze must be nearly the same as the ornithian zephyrs described by Pliny;) "in the same season the *tramontane* or north winds are felt throughout the Archipelago." Such

[i] Arist. Meteor. l. II. c. V. and VI. Lucret. V. 741, Polyb. l. IV. Diod. Sic. l. I.

[k] Posidonius, quoted by Strabo, l. III. p. 99.

[l] Plin. l. II. A. Gellius, Noct. Attic. l. XI. c. XXII.

[m] Hist. de l'Academie des Sciences de Paris 1688, t. II. p. 38.

are the common etesian winds by which Tournefort was carried in nine days from Marseilles to Canea.[n]

Range of temperature.

The temperature of Greece varies greatly in different districts, it has been said that the climates of all the regions in Europe are concentrated in that country; the waters of the Danube and the Hebrus are frozen in winter; the Russians who crossed Mount Hemus had recourse to their furs to protect them against the cold;[o] but on the other hand, spring and summer are the only seasons on the coast of Attica. "The notes of the nightingale are heard in verdant plains where the cold of winter is unknown, and rude blasts never felt; the branches of fruit trees encircled with ivy or the tendrils of the vine shelter these vallies from the burning rays of the sun. Bacchus and his joyous votaries wander in the groves; the narcissus and the glittering crocus, which adorn the wreaths of the gods, are always in flower. Venus and the muses meet on the magic banks of the Cephisus; its winding streams, flowing through a thousand channels, water fertile meads."[p]

[n] Tournefort, Voyage au Levant, t. I. lettre I.

[o] Travels of the Russian Embassy.

[p] Such is Mr. M. B's translation of a passage in Sophocles. We subjoin the more correct and literal version by Potter.

STRO. I. Where sadly sweet the frequent nightingale
Impassion'd pours her evening song,
And charms with varied notes each verdant vale,
The ivy's dark-green boughs among;
Or shelter'd 'midst the clustering vine,
Which high above to form a bow'r
Safe from the sun or stormy show'r,
Loves its thick branches to entwine;
Where frolic Bacchus always roves,
And visits with his fost'ring nymphs the groves.

ANTIS. I. Bathed in the dew of heaven each morn,
Fresh is the fair Narcissus born!
Of these great pow'rs the crowns of old
The crocus glitters robed in gold.
Here restless fountains ever murm'ring glide;
And as their limpid streamlets stray
To feed, Cephisus, thy unfailing tide,
Fresh verdure marks their winding way;
And as their pure streams roll along
O'er the rich bosom of the ground,

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If the island of Milo be excepted, which is rendered unhealthy by sulphurous vapours, the climate of the Archipelago is perhaps the finest in Europe; the temperature is more uniform than on the continent, and the corn is sooner ripe in the island of Salamis than in Attica; although Crete is situated under the 35th parallel, it is only exposed to excessive heat while the south wind prevails, it often happens that these winds are not sufficiently strong to cross the mountains which shelter the island, when that is the case, the weather is delightful; Savary tells us that the greatest range of the centigrade thermometer from the month of March to November was between 20° and 27° above zero. Snow or ice was never seen in the plains, in the month of February the fields are covered with flowers and harvests.[q]

Forests on the north and the south of Hemus.

A great difference may be observed in the vegetable productions of the provinces included within the basin of the Danube, and of those on the south of Mount Hemus; in the southern provinces the mountains' sides are crowned with forests; travellers have remarked among the numerous trees the common fir, the yew, the larissio pine, the cedar, the holm, scarlet and common oak, the lofty eastern plane, the maple, the carob, the sycamore, the beech, the walnut and chesnut. No accurate observations have hitherto been made concerning the levels at which each plant begins; it is probable that the zones of vegetation bear some resemblance to those in Italy and Sicily, but the northern flora descends lower in the south than on the Appenines. The forests on Mount Hemus do not exhibit the same variety of species; the most common trees towards the north are the oak, the mountain ash and the lime; the

> Quick spring the plants, the flow'rs around;
> Here oft to raise the tuneful song,
> The virgin band of muses deigns;
> And car-born Venus guides her golden reins.
>
> ŒDIPUS AT COLONUS.

[q] Savary, lettre XXXI.

carob, the sycamore and the plane never grow unless they be forced by artificial means or cultivation. The heights on the Danube are clad with apple, pine, cherry and apricot trees, whole forests of them may be seen in Wallachia; they extend beyond the chain of Hemus and cover the high hills in Thrace, Macedonia and Epirus. The olive and the orange trees thrive beyond the 40th parallel near the sea, but never flourish in the interior, the cold of the mountains is too severe; the climate to the south of the same parallel is wholly different. The apple and pear trees disappear; the olive now becomes the most common fruit tree, and the extensive plantations which adorn the coasts of Attica and Crete are interspersed with the laurel and the large-leaved myrtle. The orange, the fig, the pistachio, the mastich or *Pistachia terebinthus*, the mulberry and the pomegranate grow in rich luxuriance; some of them, as well as that variety of the olive which was observed by Tournefort on the sides of Mount Ida, are supposed to be indigenous to Greece.[r] Fruit trees.

The shrubs assume a different character, the finest are the rose laurel and the caper bush, the one follows the winding course of streams, the other is seen in groups among the rocks; the cherry laurel and two kinds of arbutus, the *Unedo* and *Andrachne* are frequently observed in the same part of the country. The soil of Greece is in many places calcareous, and the plants best adapted for that kind of ground are most abundant; thus the mountains of Crete are covered with the *Stachys cretica*, the thistle leaved acanthus, the prickly endive, the *Origanum dictamnus*, the *dictamnus* of Crete, and the astragalus tragacanthus, which yields a valuable resin; the genuine laudanum of the east is obtained from the *Cistus creticus*, which is cultivated and grows in a wild state on the islands of the Archipelago. Aromatic and resinous plants are most abundant, the lentisk and mastich trees appear nowhere in such profusion or in so great

[r] Voyage dans le Levant, tom. I. p. 19.

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perfection as in the island of Delos. The carnation shrub the *Lichen parellus*, from which the inhabitants extract *archil*, a delicate rouge, and many other shrubs that cannot be enumerated in a geographical work, are considered indigenous to the Archipelago and the neighbourhood of Constantinople. It may however be remarked, that the grapes are very different on the banks of the Danube and on the shores of the Archipelago, in the latter country they contain a great quantity of saccharine matter, those of Wallachia are watery and acid; strong and generous wine might be obtained from the vineyards in Servia and Hertzegovina, they are sheltered from the cold of winter and the scorching heat of summer; were greater attention and more labour bestowed on the cultivation of the grape, the vineyards in European Turkey might not be inferior to the finest in the world.

Vineyards.

Transition of plants.

The vegetable productions of the south and north, appear near each other on the shores of the Bosphorus. According to M. Olivier, the most common plants are the large chesnut tree, the *quercus racemosa* of Lamark, the cypress, the lime, the arbutus and genista. The convolvulus Persica and the Dyosporus lotus flourish on the low and sandy plains; the latter is considered a delicacy by the Turks. The coasts of Gallipoli are covered with the *Clematis cirrhosa*, the *Daphne cretica*, a beautiful shrub, and the *Spartium parviflorum*, which grows generally to the height of five feet. The transition between the vegetation in the north and south of Turkey, might be best observed in the interior of Thrace and Macedonia, but these provinces have not as yet been visited by botanists. It is besides very difficult to distinguish the plants that have been added by cultivation from such as are indigenous; the names made known to us by ancient writers are of doubtful signification; M. Olivier states that a palm tree is marked on the reverse of several of the medals that have been found on the island of Nio; the same writer is unable to account for that fact, and without doubt the palm is not at present a produc-

tion of the island; that plant has been observed in few places throughout the Archipelago, and those that grow at Naxos and near Scio in Crete never bear fruit.[s] The Greeks borrowed some of the impressions in their pieces of money from the Phenicians, others were intended to illustrate their mythology; at all events, the stamp of a palm tree has no connexion with the flora of the Archipelago.

Animal kingdom.

It is not our purpose to examine minutely the animal kingdom in European Turkey, it might be a difficult task to classify the different species. The Thessalian horses were prized for their symmetry and strength, the Turks imported a Tartar breed, and by crossing these two kinds both have been improved; a great many horses are bred in Moldavia, but those in the mountains are the most valuable; although small, they are not inferior in strength and speed to the Russian horse; those on the plains are larger but not so swift; herds of wild horses roam on the frontiers, many of them are killed to supply the inhabitants with food. The cattle in Wallachia and Greece are large and strong; more than thirty thousand oxen are annually exported from Wallachia to Bosnia, and the most of them from the last country to Constantinople. The pastures and meadows are of a rich and excellent quality; many thousand oxen and numerous flocks of sheep belonging to the inhabitants of neighbouring states are fattened on them every year.

Sheep abound in Wallachia, Macedonia, Thessaly and Livadia; but the goat is a more valuable animal to the people on the mountains. The best feathers on the Turkish arrows were taken from the plumage of the large eagles which are so numerous in the neighbourhood of Babadagi. The wild boar, the roe and fallow deer frequent the forests and the mountains, the carniverous animals are the fox, the wolf and the bear; a species of wolf, smaller than that on the hills has been observed on the plains; it haunts the banks of the Danube and

[s] Theophr. Hist. Plant. III. c. V.

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finds shelter near the marshes or among the reeds on the sides of the lakes that communicate with the river. The partridge and the bustard abound in the neighbouring vallies; although game is not so plentiful in Greece and the islands, they are well supplied with different kinds of fish.

Animals extinct.

The lion was not uncommon at one period in the same country; it frequented, in the time of Aristotle, the region between the Achelous in Acarnania and the Nessus in Thrace, which is by no means the warmest part of Greece; the natives might have prevented it from extending beyond these districts, and at last succeeded in destroying it, but it is not improbable that the Greek lion belonged to a different species peculiar to Greece and Asia Minor. A particular sort of bee in Wallachia is smaller than the common one, its wax, which is of a greenish colour, is different from the ordinary kind, it is deposited on shrubs by these industrious insects, candles and tapers are made of it, and they emit in burning an aromatic fragrance.

Mineral kingdom.

The moderns know little of the mineral productions in Turkey, the Ottomans have no relish for such pursuits; small pieces of gold are found in the beds of the Wallachian rivers and collected by the Gypsies or Ziguenes; the same province abounds in fossil salt, and the minerals of Wallachia and Moldavia are analogous to those on the Carpathian mountains. Mines rich in iron extend along Hemus, Scardus, the Albanian and Bosnian chains; these mountains may be considered a continuation of the range in Syria or the ancient Noricum, their component parts are probably the same. Some rocks consisting of mica, talc and copper have been vaguely indicated by travellers; and ancient writers have informed us that the precious metals were worked in some places on these mountains, it is likely that the ore extracted from them was copper mixed with gold and silver.

Gold mines.

Mount Pangeus in Macedonia was famed for its gold and silver mines which extended to Peonia or beyond

the river Axius, the Peonian husbandmen have turned up pieces of gold with the plough.[t] The silver mines of Larium, which Xenophon considered inexhaustible, and which were exhausted before the time of Strabo,[u] lie near the sea shore at the extremity of the Attic peninsula; few rich mines have been discovered in such situations.

Marble.

The best ancient marble, or at least that which was most prized, was taken from the quarries on Mount Marpesus in the island of Paros, large blocks of it used in erecting the public monuments in the Greek towns have remained entire for many ages; the front of the labyrinth in Egypt was built of that marble,[x] which was exported to different countries, the ancient sculptors preferred it to every other kind; if however, we judge of it from the accounts of modern travellers, its quality does not correspond with its celebrity. The crystalline fibres of which its grain is composed, fly asunder at the stroke of the chisel;[y] its great lustre, its pure whiteness and other advantages are perhaps more than sufficient to compensate that defect. In some of the ancient statutes, a kind of marble has been observed not unlike ivory, it has not been discovered in its native state in Greece or any other country by the moderns. The Peetelian marble derives its name from a mountain in the neighbourhood of Athens; it is at present distinguished by the green veins that separate the masses from each other. Mount Hymetus is at a short distance from Mount Peeteles, its marble is of a whitish grey colour; it was used by the Greek statuaries.

[t] Herod. l. V. c. XVI. &c. l. VII. c. CXIII. Thucid. l. II. Strab. l. VII. Epist. Ovid. Fast. l. III. verse 739. Some emeralds and pieces of silver which had been taken from one of these mines were shown to La Condamine in 1781. Abreg. des Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences, t. VII. p. 45.

[u] Xenophon, p. 924, edition de Paris, 1629. Strabo, l. IX. p. 275.

[x] Plin. l. XXXVI. c. V. and XIII. Steph. de Urbibus, in Marpes. Strabo, l. XI. p. 335.

[y] Tournefort, Voyage, t. I. p. 202. Hauy, Traité de Mineralogie, t. II. p. 163. and 164.

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The bole or *terra sigillata* of Lemnos is an ochreous argil formerly used in medicine; cimolite or the potter's clay of Cimolo is also an argil of a whitish colour, but becomes red by being exposed to the air; Hawkins found it in the island Argenteria or the ancient Cimolo; it was exported by the Greeks, and employed in fulling and whitening different kinds of cloth, a purpose for which it is admirably adapted.[z]

Islands.

Mines of copper mixed with iron were wrought in the island of Euboea; the gold and silver mines of Siphnos or the modern Siphanto have been gradually covered by the sea.[a] The same island is rich in lead, its smooth and grey ore is seen in many places after continued showers, in appearance, says Pococke, the metal resembles tin;[b] the island of Thasos was remarkable not only for its fine marble quarries but for a famous gold mine; and a promontory on Naxos was called Cape Smeriglio, because emery of the best quality was obtained from it. Asbestos sufficiently long and flexible to be converted into incombustible cloth was extracted from the quarry on Mount Ocha.[c]

Bitumen.

Bituminous springs are observed in many parts of Greece; but the one most worthy of notice is situated in the island of Zante or the ancient Zacynthus; the land appears to be hollow and resounds under the feet of the passenger, two basins from fifteen to twenty feet in diameter are partly filled with cold and limpid water; liquid bitumen rises from each of them, and floats on the surface; a centigrade thermometer was plunged by Spallanzani into one of the pools, its temperature before immersion indicated 24°, but it descended immediately afterwards to 17°; the same spring was visited by Herodotus 2300 years ago.

[z] Hauy, t. IV. p. 446. Olivier considers it a porphyritic rock, nearly decomposed, t. I. p. 323. Plin. Hist. Nat. l. XXXV. c. XVII. Hill on Theophrastus, p. 204, Paris, 1754.

[a] Pausan. l. X. c. II. Steph. de Urbibus, in Siphno.

[b] Pococke, book III. c. XXIII.

[c] Strabo, X. p. 304.

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EUROPE.

Portion of European Turkey to the south of Mount Hemus and the east of Pindus. Islands.

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Ordinary division.

It is unnecessary to adhere to the divisions established by the Turks in our account of the provinces which compose the Ottoman empire, such divisions are artificial and for that reason ill adapted for a geographical work. Moldavia, Wallachia, Servia and Bosnia are each of them separate states, and at the same time political and natural divisions; Bulgaria is also a natural and ethnographical division, but not a political one. Thrace Proper corresponds with Romania as it is marked on the maps, but in the present day neither the one nor the other forms a political or ethnographical region; they shall however be considered distinct countries in their relation to physical geography, the same may be said of Macedonia, Albania and Greece; the tables at the end of the book may throw some light on the subject of Turkish statistics.

Constantinople, different names.

The celebrated town of Constantine is the capital of the empire; it has been seen in the history of geography that it was first a Thracian village known by the name of Lygas, then the Greek settlement of Byzantium, and afterwards the new capital of the Roman empire under the pompous title of *Nea Roma*, but custom or servility has substituted that of *Konstantinou-Polis*, which it still retains. The peasants in the neighbourhood, while they repair to Con-

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stantinople, say in vulgar Greek that they are going *es tan bolin* or to the town ; [a] the Turkish troops have given it the name of Estamboul, but the more polished or less barbarous inhabitants call it frequently Konstantinia. It is denominated in the Russian annals Zaregorod or the royal city, and the Bulgarians and Wallachians term it at present Zaregrad. The Islandic nations and the Scandinavian tribes have named it since the tenth century Myklagard or the great town, and it has been distinguished by the venerable title of Islam-Bol, a half Turkish and half Greek term, which signifies the city of the faith. Constantinople is built on a triangular promontory and divided by seven hills which are washed on the south by the sea of Marmora, and bounded on the north by a small gulf or the ancient Golden Horn, that forms a safe anchorage for twelve hundred ships. The walls round the town are in the same position as those which the consul Cyrus Constantinus built by command of Theodosius the Second, Chalcondglas supposes their circumference to be 111 stadia, Gyllius about thirteen Italian miles, but according to the best modern plans of Constantinople, it is not less than 19,700 yards. [b] The ancient Byzantium was forty stadia in circumference, it extended towards the interior to Besestan or the great market; the same town when improved by Constantine the Great was as large as it is at present; it has now twenty-eight gates, fourteen on the side of the port, seven towards the land, and as many on the Propontis. [c]

Port.

Circumference.

Situation.

The view round the town has been much admired, its elevated position, the great number of trees, houses and minarets, the majestic entrance of the Bosphorus, the spacious harbour surrounded by the suburbs of Galata, Pera

[a] Scott and Maittaire. The Dorian was spoken by the Byzantines.

[b] Pet. Gill, Topograph. Constant. l. iv. Hanmer, Constantinopolis und der Bosphores, Vienna 1821.

[c] Ducange says that there are thirty-three gates, but he counts some of them twice, his details are inaccurate. M. Le Chevalier on the other hand takes no notice of several new gates. Hammer, I. p. 100.

and St. Dimitri, the large city of Scutari in front, the verdant hills behind it, the Propontis and its picturesque islands, Mount Olympus on the back ground, its snowy summits and the fruitful fields of Asia and Europe on every side present a succession of the finest landscapes. The stranger observes not without emotion the natural beauties in the neighbourhood, and admires the excellent position of a city that may be so quickly supplied with provisions and so easily defended in the event of a siege; from its safe and commodious harbour, it seems destined by nature to reign over two seas and two continents, but the first impression is soon effaced by examining the interior. Constantinople is ill built, the streets are narrow and no part of them is well paved; its irregular and pitiful houses are like Turkish barracks or clay and wooden cottages; conflagrations are of ordinary occurrence and the plague breaks out every year. The moral feelings of the stranger are outraged, the haughty and solemn air of the Mussulman is contrasted with the humble, timid and lowly mien of the Jew; a foreigner, before he is aware of the difference in the dress, may discover from a man's appearance whether he is a Mussulman or a raja. The Fanar, which forms a part of the town, is inhabited by the wretched descendants of the Byzantine families; these degraded men crouch under the Mussulman's sword, assume the titles of princes and cheapen the temporary sovereignties of Wallachia and Moldavia; faithful representatives of the Low-Empire, submissive to every power, to amass wealth is the sole business of their lives, by honest or dishonest means is to them equally indifferent. [d]

Fanar.

The seraglio or the principal palace has been considered a great ornament to the town, it must be confessed that the view from the side near the Bosphorus is romantic, but the building is a confused mass of prisons, barracks and gardens; it forms a separate city, the seat of Asiatic debauchery and African slavery, honour, generosity, com-

Seraglio.

[d] Zallony, les Fanariotes, (Paris 1824.)

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passion, the best feelings of our nature are banished from its walls.[e]

Buildings.

One venerable monument of antiquity, the church dedicated to divine wisdom by the emperor Justinian in the sixth century, now vulgarly called Saint Sophia, has fortunately been spared; but it is certain that it must have been demolished had it not been converted into a mosque; its effect is imposing although the style of architecture is much inferior to that which distinguishes the classical epoch. The ancient Hippodrome is now a public walk, the Cyclobion or the modern castle of the seven towers is but a weak citadel in which the ambassadors of the powers at war with the Porte are confined. The most remarkable mosques are those of the Sultan Achmet and the Sultana Valide, and another called the Solimami; such are the principal edifices, they are seen to the greatest advantage when the whole town is illumined, they might add perhaps to the beauty of a landscape, but when examined singly they appear without majesty and without grace. We are apt from their frail and clumsy appearance, to connect them with the works of men in the pastoral state.

Dalloway supposes that there are 88,185 houses and 400,000 inhabitants in Constantinople, Eton diminishes the last number to 230,000, Kinsbergen increases it to 600,000, but includes the population of Galata and Pera, Adreossy concludes from the consumption of bread, that the number of souls amounts to 597,700; it is obvious, however, that these calculations are founded on uncertain or imperfect data. It is said that there are 130 public baths in the town, 600 mosques, 518 *Medressed* or schools and 35 *Kattub-chans* or public libraries. The above statements are taken from the work of a learned orientalist, but it appears from his own researches that they cannot be considered accurate.[f]

[e] Melling, Vues de Constantinople. Chateaubriand, Itineraire.
[f] Hammer, passim.

It is stated that before the last war the value of the wool annually exported to Marseilles from Constantinople amounted in some years to L.62,500, and in others to L.84,000. It was brought to the Porte from the Bosphorus, the Propontis, the Hellespont, Anatolia, Romelia, Bulgaria, Bessarabia and the southern coasts of the Black Sea. The merchants of Constantinople sent every year to the same place 600 bales of cotton, 6000 buffalo skins and about two or three thousand hides of oxen. England is at present the great mart for these articles, some of them, but the number is inconsiderable, are exported to Austria. The silk used in the manufactories of Constantinople and Scio is sent from Bulgaria and the neighbourhood of Adrianople; a small quantity is imported by the French; the other exports are wax, box-wood, copper from Asia Minor, orpiment, deers horns, fur, hair, gall-nuts and corn. The Turks import sugar from Egypt and prefer it to that from the West Indies.[s]

Pera, Galata.

Pera and Galata, two large suburbs, are situated beyond the harbour of Constantinople, which is about 6000 yards in length, and from 300 to 500 in breadth. Pera is built on a height; it is the residence of the foreign ambassadors and the Europeans who are not permitted to remain at Constantinople; the great warehouses and granaries are situated at Galata, which is near the port and the custom-house; it is surrounded with ditches and walls flanked with bastions. The inhabitants of these suburbs consist chiefly of foreigners from all nations; their number is so great that Pera and Galata have been compared to the tower of Babel; the languages spoken are the Turkish, Greek, Hebrew, Armenian, Arabian, Persian, Russian, Wallachian, German, French, Italian and Hungarian. The degenerate Greeks surpass all the strangers in espionage and political intrigue.

Neighbouring country.

A great many villages almost concealed by lofty trees are scattered along the shores of the Bosphorus; it is

[s] Olivier, Voyage dans l'Empire, 4to, p. 19, 193, 196, 198, &c.

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there that *Bechick-Tadch* or the summer palace of the Sultan is situated, Belgrade appears at a distance behind it and is inhabited in one season of the year by the most wealthy Christian families in Pera and Galata; it is sheltered from excessive heat, the air is pure and salubrious, an extensive plantation of fruit trees, verdant meadows and limpid streams adorn the immediate vicinity; the town is not exposed to the plague or the frequent fires that happen in the capital; if the country were under a better government, almost every part of it might be as delightful as the neighbourhood of Belgrade. The suburb of Agoub lies beyond two portions of Constantinople allotted to the Greeks and the Jews, and at no great distance from the Fresh Water walk, one of the finest near the city; the harbour there is comparatively narrow, and the gulf is not unlike a large river.

Adrianople.

It is unnecessary to give so full an account of the other Thracian towns; the numerous minarets of Adrianople or *Edrineh*, the second city of the empire, rise above groves of cypress and gardens of roses; the Hebrus increased by many tributary streams descends from the central ridge, turns southwards and flows past the town, of which the population is not less than 100,000 souls. "The Maritza, such is the modern name of the river, waters a sandy soil; the Arda runs westwards through a rocky country, and the Tundscha through light but not unfruitful lands, all these rivers overflow their banks in winter."[h] This is all the information we have derived from the most celebrated Turkish writer, information which may convince us of the darkness that envelops the modern geography of Thrace; but that country is rich in vineyards, corn, and wood, the ancients extolled its mountains more than any on the earth;[i] at present there are not more than five or six public roads in the whole region.

North-west of Romania.

The towns on the road which extends towards Sophia or the north-west are Filibe or Philippopolis and Tartar-

[h] Hadgi Khalfa, Romelia, translated by Hammer.

[i] Lucian, Drap. "Rigore fertilis," says Pliny, XVII. 4.

Bazardgik, the first, according to Palma, is a flourishing and commercial city with a population of 30,000 souls, its trade consists in woollen goods; the second is peopled by 10,000 individuals; both these towns are built in a large and very fertile valley, the fields and orchards are watered by the numerous feeders of the Hebrus; the pass which Ammianus Marcellinus calls Succi and the Turks Sulu-Derbend, is situated at the junction of Mount Rhodope and Hemus, it separates Thrace from Bulgaria. The descent towards the plains of Felibe is much steeper than on the side of Sophia, the ruins of a gate which Trajan erected, are still to be seen in that part of the country; [k] another pass, or the *Kis-Derbend*, leads by the south-west to *Samakow* in Upper Macedonia, a place famous for its iron mines. Such are the great military and central positions which command European Turkey; the base of the mountains is marked by many thermal springs of a very high temperature.

Passes.

Several paths extend to the north from Adrianople and cross Mount Hemus, which on that side is not very lofty; these roads are surrounded by rocks or verdant and sloping plains, snow has never been seen in any part of the journey by the modern travellers who repair from Constantinople to Schumla, and the defiles are fortified by natural walls. The pass of *Demir-Kapu* or the Iron Gate and the one between *Kaisanlik* and *Lofdcha* are situated between high mountains; Zagora, a country wholly unknown to the moderns, is encompassed by these branches of the Hemus, it has been peopled since the ninth century by the Bulgarians, and a Roman road passed through it in a direction nearly parallel to the mountains. The descendants of the Paulianistes, a Bulgarian and catholic people, reside probably in the vallies of Zangora, [l] and it

Zagora.

Paulianistes.

[k] Ammian. Marcell. XXI. 10. Driesch, Voyage à Constantinople. Another pass on the north is known by the name of Capouli-Derbend, it branches from Sulu-Derbend.

[l] Delisle's Atlas.

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is not a little remarkable that no traveller of the present day has visited a country so interesting on account of its ancient monuments and historical associations. The towns to the north of Adrianople are *Tchirmen*, the residence of a *Sand-jak*, and *Eski-Sagra*, which contains 10,000 souls; the fields of *Selimnia* are covered with hemlock.

Hemus becomes lower towards the north-west and forms the range of Strandschea or a continuation of calcareous heights, which separates the inland ridge of Thrace from the shores of the Black Sea. *Kirk-Kilissi*, a considerable town, partly peopled by a colony of Jews who speak bad German and supply the market of Constantinople with butter and cheese, is situated on the side of the mountains next the interior,[m] and the Turkish geographer places Indchiguis on the hills of the Strandschea, which extend in the direction of Constantinople; it is inhabited by *Troglodytes*, its numerous dwellings are cut in solid rocks, stories are formed in the same manner, and many apartments that communicate with each other; few such places exist in the world, it is more remarkable than those of the same description in Sicily, but the travellers who pass by the neighbourhood seldom go out of their way to visit it.[n] The eastern sides of the Strandschea mountains rise above the inhospitable shores of the Euxine or Midiah, many intricate caverns have been discovered in the ancient Salmydessus, but the coast is destitute of harbours, and the mariner cannot find a safe anchorage before he reaches the gulf of Bourgas, which runs into the interior between Hemus and Strandschea, and is surrounded on every side with small ports.

Subterranean town.

Bay of Bourgas.

Some branches extend from the last chain towards the Thracian Chersonesus and unite with a lofty group, the ancient Ganos or the modern Tekiri-Dag. The Hebrus changes in that high country its first direction towards the

Tekiri-Dag.

[m] Stutmer, Esquisses, p. 203. [n] Hadgi-Khalfa, Romelia.

Propontis and is increased by many tributary streams, among others the Erigine, which, like the Teara admired by Darius, retains its old Thracian name.

Southern Coasts.

Selivria and Rodosti are two flourishing Greek cities on the coast of the Propontis under the government of the Captain Pacha; Gallipoli, a town of 17,000 inhabitants, is situated on the strait, which is but feebly guarded by the castles on the Dardanelles, a more convenient entrance might be made into the Propontis, if a canal were cut across the Isthmus from the gulf of Saros. The small town of Enos stands near the mouth of the Hebrus, Demotica, the residence of the heroic exile from Pultawa has been built above it in a fertile valley on the banks of the same river. The rugged pass along the ancient mount Ismarus, which extends from Rhodope and is called *Gurtchine* by a modern traveller, lies to the west of the Hebrus.[o] *Ienidscher* is situated near the marshes at the embouchure of the Nestus or Karasou; beyond it are the ruins of Abdon and the famous pass of *Kavala* or the ancient Stœna Sapæorum, which was fortified by Brutus and Cassius a short time before the battle that put an end to Roman liberty. Our imperfect account of Thrace ends with these memorable places, near which the rich gold mines on Mount Pangæus excited in past ages the avidity of the Thasians and Macedonians. The vast territory between Kavala, Philippopoli, Adrianople and Enos, all the land watered by the Nestus, all the poetic vallies of Rhodope form at present a *terra incognita* inhabited probably by Bulgarian, Albanian and Thracian tribes.

Macedonia.

Macedonia is surrounded by mountains on the north-east, the south, the west and south-west; it extends on the south-east between the gulfs of Salonica and Contessu, and forms a peninsula bounded by three promontories of

[o] Paul Lucas, Voyage, t. I. p. 25, 47.

[p] Carte de M. Riedl. The words Strymon, Struma, Strumien, are perhaps generic terms in the Slavonic and Gothic languages, and, like the modern word Kara-son, have been applied to many rivers. Some information may be obtained on the subject from the travels of Cousineri.

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which Athos is the largest. It is divided by its mountains into many sloping vallies, and intersected by numerous passes; the natives say that the traveller may see in their country many lofty cataracts and the ruins of many ancient temples.

Mountains.

The range to the east of the Strymon has not as yet been designated by the moderns; Mannert considers it the *Orbelus* of the ancients or at least the highest part of that chain, in which a late writer places the Arapnitza mountains.[q] The continuation of lofty heights on the north is sometimes called Argentaro, that term, according to Brown, has been applied to it from the lustre of its white mica rocks, and has no connexion with its silver mines; it might be urged that the word Argentaro, which is of vague signification, was first for want of a better name marked in the maps of the 17th century; the silver mines were in all probability situated on the *Dysoros*, which formed a part of the ancient Orbelus. Mount Scardus on the north-west has partly retained its ancient name under the Turkish one of *Schar-Tag*, but it is difficult to find any term either ancient or modern for the western chain between Macedonia and Albania; it may perhaps be more correctly considered a high country crowned with a number of heights and some detached mountains. Ssodrus, the Bernus of the ancients, and the Candavian mountains are separate groups. The word Bernus is probably connected with the Tyrolian Brenner, and without doubt the Pyrennees, a name which a Byzantine writer applies to the whole chain, is one of its derivatives.[r] The *Bora* of Livy and Pouqueville appears to be an inland branch, which includes the sloping heights between middle Macedonia and the highest ridge.[s]

All the mountainous ranges in the south terminate in the ancient Pindus or the modern Mezzovo between Epirus and Macedonia; Olympus, a separate chain on the

[q] Mines d'Orient, t. V. p. 440.
[r] Georg. Acrop. c. LXXXI.
[s] Pouqueville, Voyage, t. I. p. 315; t. II. p. 365, 407, 413.

east has been styled by some travellers *Lacha*, by others *Olimbos*; *Vermion* (Bermius) and *Verghitission* (Bercelesius) or Zero-livado which means literally a barren meadow are situated in the interior and descend on the west towards the central plain; the Kerkina and perhaps the Bertiscus of the ancients extend in a different direction from the north-east to the south, but it is impossible to determine all these localities, or even to point out the course of the rivers. The Strymon, which issues from its seven lakes on mount Scomius and receives the Karasou, a large feeder from the west, has perplexed many geographers, that river, after having formed the lake Kadakar or the ancient Prasias, discharges itself into the gulf of Contessa. The Axius signified probably in the ancient Macedonian, the river of wood-cutters, but its name was changed during the Low Empire into that of Bardarius or Vardar which is very likely a generick word in the ancient Dardanian; the Axius flows from Scardius and receives the Eriganon or *Vistritza*. The small delta formed by the ancient *Haliacmon* at present the *Indge-Karason* is apt to be confounded with that of the Vardar; many rivers in the interior of Macedonia were unknown to the ancients and are still unknown to the moderns.

Rivers.

The mines of Karatova in the same province are still worked and yield copper ore mixed with silver; the mountains of *Dupindscha* are covered the greater part of the year with snow, the iron mines on them are inferior in the quality of the metal, and not so rich as those of Vrana or Uivarina; a great quantity of salt is taken from the lake *Iaidschiler*, but all these articles are not nearly so valuable as the agricultural produce of the country. The soil of Macedonia is more fruitful than the richest plains in Sicily, and there are few districts in the world so fertile as the coast of Athos or the ancient Chalcidis; the land in the vallies of Panomi and Cassandria, when grazed by the lightest plough, yields a more abundant harvest than the finest fields in the department between the Eure and Loire or the granary of France, if the wheat in its green

Mines.

Fruitfulness of the soil.

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state be not browsed by sheep or cut with the scythe it perishes from too much luxuriance.[t]

Cotton and tobacco.

The culture of cotton and tobacco is found to be more profitable than that of corn throughout the north of Greece, on that account new land is daily brought into cultivation. The district of Seres is more fruitful in cotton than any other, the value of that article in Macedonia alone amounts to seven milions of piasters; two varieties of tobacco, the *Nicotiana latifolia* and the *Nicotiana rustica* are produced in the same country, the land on which they grow is not less than one-eighth of the whole in cultivation; employment is thus furnished to 20,000 families, the average crop of tobacco is supposed to be about a hundred thousand bales, and the gross revenue derived from it four millions of piasters. Macedonia is also famous for its wines, some of which are equal to those of Burgundy, corn and different leguminous plants are profitably cultivated in the interior, where the climate has been less changed than in the maritime country by the demolition of forests and other artificial means, but in many enclosed vallies the heat is oppressive and the plants are sometimes destroyed.

Salonica. Towns in the South. Different tribes.

The town of Salonica is situated on an amphitheatre formed by the gulf of the same name in the centre of the country; its population amounts to 70,000 inhabitants, its trade is extensive, it still retains many monuments of its ancient splendour, among others different triumphal arches, one which is still nearly entire, was erected in honour of the emperor Antonine, the church of St. Demetrius and several others are now converted into mosques. The bay is not sheltered against every wind, but the harbour built by Constantine the Great, may safely contain three hundred ships. The town is supplied with water by means of aqueducts from Mount Hortasch. "It is disgraceful," says Hadgi-Khalfa, "that so many Jews are allowed to remain in Salonica; the excitement thus given to trade is apt to blind true believers; the Jews," continues the same writer, "employ many work-

[t] Felix Beaujour, Tableaux, &c. t. I.

men in their different manufactories, support a number of schools, in which there are not fewer than two hundred masters; the caravans that travel from Salonica to Semlin, Vienna and Leipsic are loaded with cotton, tobacco, carpets and leather."

Mount Athos.

The other parts of the Chalcidian peninsula are insignificant in comparison of Mount Athos, the *Hagion Oros* or the holy mountain, but its name has been corrupted into Ayonouri; it rises in the form of an isolated pyramid, on its sides are twenty-two convents, five hundred chapels, many villages, cells and grots peopled by at least four thousand monks; the hermits live in caves, their number does not exceed twenty, the rest are mere monks, and among them are individuals of every nation. They cultivate olives and vines or work during their leisure hours as carpenters, masons and weavers. These romantic and sequestered shades, in former ages the retreats of philosophy, are now the haunts of superstition; Philostratus says in his life of Apollonius, that many Greek philosophers used to retire to Mount Athos that they might be better able to contemplate the heavens. The monks have several farms in the peninsula, and their mendicant brethren levy a considerable tribute in the neighbouring districts; they carry on a lucrative trade at Karkis or the largest town on the mountain, and at the strong harbour of Alavara.

Towns in the north-east.

Seres is one of the towns in the country watered by the Strymon and the Pontus, its population is not less than 30,000 souls, but many of the inhabitants on account of its unhealthiness repair during the summer to the neighbouring mountains. Drama is famous for its canvass, *Ostromeza* or *Strumitza* for its medicinal springs, and *Kistendel* or Gioustendil for its warm and sulphureous baths. Many valuable monuments might be discovered in these retired spots; the monks in the convent of St. John guard religiously the remains of the patriarch Gennadius, but they threw about twenty years ago five hundred Greek and probably ancient manuscripts, into the river; an an-

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cient colossal head supports at present a modern edifice in Drama.[u]

Towns in the north-west.

The town of Uskub which stands on the basin of the Upper Vardar, is the ancient Scopia that signifies a place commanding a distant view; in the time of the Low empire it was denominated one of the keys of Macedonia, and Hadgi Khalfa informs us that it is styled in an ancient Greek writing the young bride of Greece, the same writer adds, that the great clock in the town may be heard at the distance of two leagues. The traveller who descends the Axius, leaves on the left the valley on which is the town of Istib or the ancient Stobi, and observes the Koukia Karasou or the Erigon on the right; *Bitolia* or *Monastir* is the principal town in the district near the last river, it is peopled by 15,000 inhabitants, and its governor possesses the title of Romeli-Valicy.; his jurisdiction extends over the whole of Romelia, but the place is not as M. Pouqueville supposes, the capital of the province,[x] it is subject to the government of the Captain Pacha.[y] The whole country is well wooded, fertile in corn and rich in pasturage.

Central towns.

M. Pouqueville has enabled us to distinguish the basin of the Erigon, (the *Osaphagus* of Livy) from that of the *Eordœus* or *Patava*, which have been frequently confounded by the learned and laborious Mannert, who has thus in his attempt to correct, added to the number of D'Anville's errors, and shown the impossibility of illustrating ancient geography without a careful examination of modern maps. Palma was the first who put an end to the numerous discussions concerning the geography of that part of Greece; he marked even more accurately than Pouqueville the two passes that confine the valley of the Erigon. As we descend the numerous lakes on the plain of the Eordæus, we arrive at the admirable site of the ancient Edessa, the first

u N. Manuscript by a Native.

x Pouqueville, Voyages, t. II. p. 306, 307; I. 192.

y Hadgi-Khalfa, Rumili, &c. See the Translation of Hammer.

capital of Macedonia and a place of refuge for its monarchs, it is now known by the Slavonic name of Vodina, the river divides itself into four branches and forms several romantic cascades; near the houses shaded by lofty plane trees the water assumes a silver tinge and is seen afar off according to some writers even at Salonica. Jenidsché is situated below Edessa near the ruins of Pella, which have been lately examined by Barbie du Bocage; feudal estates extend from the last place to Stromza, these possessions belong to the Ghavrini the only family in Turkey except the Othmans, that possesses heritable privileges which have been solemnly recognised.[z]

Castoria is situated near the winding course of the Haliacnon on a fine lake, which is large in winter, but its waters are marshy and partially drained in summer. Servia is built on a public road that crosses Olympus and *Kara Veria* or the ancient Beræa in the low grounds, many of its industrious inhabitants are employed in working an extensive quarry of red marble. Niausta or as the natives term it Pompeiopolis, a town in the midst of many rivulets has been recently destroyed; it was famed for its wines.

Different tribes.

The Yeuruks or the Konarides, a numerous tribe in Macedonia are descended from the Turcomans of Konieh, who were removed to keep in subjection a tributary population scattered in *mahalets* or villages, they still enjoy important privileges. These inhabitants in the mountains of Macedonia weave a coarse cloth, which is used for clothing to the poor in many parts of Greece; but the Bulgarian and Albanian tribes lead a pastoral life in the high districts; the description which Strabo gives of the Dardanians may still be applied to the people on the Oulac lakes near the sources of the Vardar, and the *Kastareses* are a tribe made up of Servians and Wallachians, they inhabit the country in the neighbourhood of Castoria.

[z] N. MS. by a native.

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Thessaly.

The large valley of the Peneus is bounded by well-known mountains, Olympus, Pindus, Oeta and Pelion, which enclose the Thessalian amphitheatre. The breed of horses in the province is not the best in Greece, but it abounds in oil, wine, cotton, silk and wool; Larissa, or *Ienischehre*, the capital, is situated on the Peneus, and surrounded by a country fruitful in oranges, lemons, citrons and pomegranates; the same district produces fine figs, excellent melons, grapes, almonds, olives and cotton, the Turks who inhabit it, are more barbarous than the rest of their countrymen; Larissa owes its importance and comparatively extensive commerce to its leather, tobacco and famous red dye; its population amounts to 25,000 souls. The Greeks of Ambelaika in the vale of Tempe, those of Zagora in a district of ancient Magnesia, have a long time escaped Turkish oppression; the best kind of silk is produced in the last district, and the manufactories in the town furnish occupation to many of the inhabitants. Cotton is the great article of commerce at *Tournavos*, a small town about three leagues to the north-west of Larissa, but it is the celebrated dye or as it is termed in different countries, the red of the Levant that renders the manufactures of Thessaly more valuable than those in the rest of Greece; the excellence of that dye has been attributed to the superior quality of the *alyzari*, a species of madder which is most common in Anatolia and Beotia. The passes of Agrafa might be easily defended, they lead to Epirus and are situated near *Tricala* or *Tirhala*, a considerable town; the Meteora, or high places are a line of monasteries on steep and probably basaltic rocks, which the monks ascend by means of ropes and baskets, these heights extend to the mountainous chain of Maina. The inhabitants of *Pharsala* have not forgotten that near their town an eventful battle was fought, or that the oppressed world was avenged when the Romans turned their arms against each other.

Trading towns.

Meteora.

Gulf of Volo.

Volo, or the gulph of the same name, retains but little of the splendour of the ancient Demetrius, the naval station,

which, together with Chalcis and Corinth, was supposed to command Greece; the bay is extensive, but the anchorage is unsafe, the harbour in the town of Trikeri at the entrance of the gulf, is commodious and well frequented.[a]

The ancient Sperchius waters the valley that in the remotest antiquity was called *Hellada*; the modern towns of Patratchick and Zeitoûn have been built on it.

Greece Proper.

The traveller, after having crossed the heights of Thermopylæ, enters into Greece Proper; the climate is more oppressive, water is scarcer, but the soil is fruitful; oil is the most valuable production in the southern provinces, and that of Attica is superior to every other, but a thick hoar frost rises occasionally from the Archipelago and is destructive to plants, it falls in the form of dew and penetrates into the roots and sap, the leaves become yellow, the flowers decay, or if they ripen, the fruit is of little use. The oil exported annually from Attica is calculated to be worth 300,000 piasters; that from the Morea about 400,000. Corinth is still famed for its raisins, Arcadia for its cheese, and Mount Hymettus for its honey. The soil of Attica is covered with aromatic plants, and that circumstance enables us to account for the excellence of its honey, it is sweeter than that of other countries, retains its aromatic fragrance, and, although of a red colour, is perfectly transparent. The same country might rival Spain in the fineness of its wool, the goat thrives on its hills, the uncultivated lands are overrun with thyme, serpillum and marjoram, the Albanian shepherds lead their flocks in summer to these pastures. The breed of goats was improved in the time of the Byzantine emperors by the mixture of the African and Asiatic race, but it has not since been sufficiently crossed; the breed of sheep in Livadia and Arcadia is the best, that of Attica the worst.

Mount Parnassus.

The view from Mount Parnassus is extensive, a traveller saw from it Olympus, the Ionian Islands and the Cyclades; he might have observed beneath him the town and

[a] Bartholdi, Voyage, p. 19.

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gulf of Lepanto, the marshes near which Missolonghi and Anatolica have become the residence of freemen, and on the east amidst flowery meads, the populous town of Livadia in the province of the same name.

Athens.

We pass the Helicon, the Kithairon of which the present barbarous names are unknown, and through Thebes or Thives, and arrive at Attica. The population of Athens is not greater than 12,000 souls, but its ancient monuments are the most magnificent and renowned in the world. The peristyle of the Parthenon, the temple of Theseus, the *Pœcile* or lantern of Demosthenes, the tower of the winds, Adrian's gate and a wall of the theatre are still entire. Strangers hasten on their arrival at Athens to visit the Acropolis, that rock inaccessible on three sides rises above the old and new town. It was there that Cecrops and Theseus assembled the inhabitants of Attica, and Themistocles surrounded it with walls after his victory at Salamis; on the same rock is built the temple of Minerva, the Parthenon, a monument of the genius of Pericles and the art of Phidias. It was spoiled by the Venetians, the work of destruction has been continued by the Turks and Greeks, both disfigured it and used the materials in building houses, a Corinthian chapter is sometimes seen in the side of a cottage; the frieze was lately stripped of its statues by Lord Elgin, a Scotsman.

The Peloponnesus or Morea.

Corinth, its two gulfs and rocky isthmus, which so many sovereigns have in vain endeavoured to cut, still command the entrance into the Peloponnesus or Morea, which has been styled by the Slavonic tribes who penetrated into it during the Byzantine empire, the maritime country. We observe in that region the agreeable town of Argos and Napoli de Romania, or as it is sometimes called the Gibraltar of Greece, three hundred vessels may ride at anchor in its harbour, Napoli de Malvoisia and its great inland bay, the populous town of *Misitra* on the valley of the Eurotas, the present Vasili-Potamo or royal river and Tripolitza, where a pacha resided with impunity near the ruins of Mantinea. The towns on the south-west coast are

Calamata on the fruitful plains of Messenia, Navarino which still retains its admirable harbour, *Gastouni* towards the west in the fertile fields of Elis; but Patras, a place of greater trade than any of them contains 8,000 souls. Mega-Spileon, a convent partly cut in a rock, the gloomy lake of Stymphali and many other places renowned in history are situated in the interior of that rich peninsula, of which the produce in corn, grapes, figs, wine, oil, cotton, silk and many other articles amounts to fifteen millions of piasters.[b] The number of inhabitants according to the lowest calculation is not less than 250,000, and according to the highest not more than 400,000; but as the Peloponnesus has now become the country of the independent Greeks, and many strangers have repaired to it, its population is probably equal to 800,000. While we write Egyptian armies burn the cities, devastate the fields and massacre the inhabitants of the Morea; other barbarians ravage the plains of Tempe and the banks of the Cephisus; the towns which we have mentioned are perhaps at present reduced to ashes.

Character of the modern Greeks.

The Greeks who wander among the ruins of their ancient glory, have at last endeavoured to shake off the Turkish yoke; heroic deeds both on land and sea, convinced every one that they had awaked from their long lethargy, but as in ancient times, their efforts have been enfeebled by internal discord, the modern Greeks have unfortunately inherited the vanity, inconstancy and treachery of their fathers. Nature has not denied them high intellectual endowments, poets and orators are born amongst them, but their natural abilities are not improved by cultivation; sarcasm and raillery supersede argument, and in their deliberations, a frivolous expression, a single word or gesture is sufficient to make them unmindful of their most important interests. The *Moraites* are less volatile than the townsmen of Romelia and better fitted to enjoy the blessings of freedom under a good go-

[b] Pouqueville, t. v. 23, 48, &c.

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vernment. The Athenians have not lost their ancient urbanity, their accent is more harmonious than any other in Greece, their language is less diffuse and for that reason more energetic. Their appearance is nearly the same as that of their ancestors, the women of Athens are still distinguished by their light figures, the oval form of the face, the regular contour, the straight line that marks the profile, full black eyes, high forehead, red lips, small hands and feet; they are equally graceful in the mournful dance of Ariadne and in the rapid mazes of the *Romeika*. The simplicity of the ancient dress is in some degree retained; a white tunic descends from the neck, a mantle covers the arms and falls over the shoulders, a handkerchief tied loosely round the head does not conceal their jet-black hair; but the barbarous empire is typified in a clumsy and ill-placed girdle, red trowsers and a heavy Turkish cloak.

Greek Church.

The Greeks are still in possession of their church and clergy, but the former is oppressed and the dignities which the latter enjoy are publicly sold by the Turks. The secular ecclesiastics fill the offices of readers, choristers, deacons, priests and *archpriests*, but they cannot obtain higher preferment; the monks may become bishops, metropolitans, archbishops and patriarchs. Curates and priests are permitted to marry before their ordination, but they are not allowed to espouse a widow or to enter into second nuptials, many Greek clergymen have lately fallen martyrs to civil and religious liberty; it might be fortunate for the nation at large, if the clergy were at the head of that party whose great object is to instruct the people.

The Greeks keep annually five fasts; on these occasions they may eat salt or dried fish seasoned with olive oil, the same indulgence is granted every Friday, and they are not apt to abuse it, for many consider robbery or even murder a less heinous crime than breaking an hebdomadal fast. Some of the Greeks have entered into a coalition with the Roman Pontiff, but

without acceding to the doctrine of clerical celibacy or giving up the rites of the eastern church; the union has been of little advantage to the Pope and unfavourable to the formation of an independent and national character in Greece.

Maniotes.

Many of the Laconian peasants are settled on the sides of Mount Taygetus, and enjoy that freedom which was so dear to the Lacedemonians, their forefathers; the Mainotes are accustomed from their infancy to the use of arms, and are ever ready to employ them against the Turks, although their courage is little removed from rashness, their accurate knowledge of the country, its different passes and advantageous positions enables them to retain their independence, the tribute which the Turks receive from them is almost nominal. The Mainotes are implacable in their resentment, their country is often desolated by civil broils, and their cottages frequently stained with blood; peace and order can only be restored by the aged, who are held in veneration by all the people;[c] their counsels are received like the ancient oracles; the old men regulate in their *synodes* the public expense, and determine the best means of securing the public safety, their measures are concerted in the assemblies of the captains, and laid before a bey or chief, who puts them in execution. The council elects its chiefs, who are confirmed in the dignities of their office by the Turkish government; the Mainotes acknowledge at present the doubtful authority of the Greek Republic. The people who have resisted so long the Ottoman troops are not numerous, the total population of the country does not exceed 60,000 souls, and the number of men fit to bear arms is less than 15,000.

The produce and principal articles of commerce are oil, rye, honey, wax, gall-nuts, cotton, kermes, undressed leather and wool. Agriculture has been of late years improved, the northern districts are gradually becoming more

[c] Respect for old age is a virtue common to them with their ancestors.

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fruitful, and some of the harbours into which the largest vessels can enter, are likely ere long to be more frequented.

Cacovouniotes.

The Cacovouniotes who have been frequently confounded with the Mainotes are settled near Cape Matapan, and live chiefly by piracy, they are the most barbarous and cruel of the Greeks;[e] the Bainotes in the interior of the district live by plunder.

Candia or Crete.

Candia or Crete is the first island in the east of Greece at the entrance of the Archipelago, that large and important settlement might serve to fix the doubtful limits between the Archipelago and the Mediterranean. The white mountains rise on the west of Crete, Strabo tells us that they extend to the distance of 300 stadia or 11 leagues, and are not lower than the highest summits in the Peloponnesus.[f] These mountains, it is said, have been called white, because the snow remains on them always, but it is only on the vallies exposed to the north that the snow never melts.[g] Ida is situated in the centre of the island, the circumference of its base is not less than twenty-five leagues,[h] it consists of a group of hills heaped one above another in a pyramidical form. The climate of the first heights is temperate, and the sides are covered with lofty forests or clad with verdant pastures,[i] the wind murmurs round the barren summits and in some places the snow remains throughout the year.[k] The distribution of plants is remarkable, one part is covered with forests consisting chiefly of maple trees and evergreen

Mountains.

[e] Clergymen used to accompany them in their piratical excursions, who replied to those that objected against their being at the same time pirates and priests, that they went to bless the spoils and divide the tithes.

[f] Strab. l. X. p. 327, Sieber, Voyage, t. I. p. 191.

[g] Tournefort, t. I. p. 28, edit. 1717, in 4°. Theoph. Hist. Plant. l. III. c. II; l. IV. c. I. Plin., l. XVI. c. XXXIII. Savary, Lettres sur la Grèce, l. XXXVI. p. 322.

[h] Or 600 stadia. Strab. l. X. p. 325.

[i] Sieber, Voyage, t. II. p. 61. Meursius, Creta, l. II. c. III. Belon, Observat. l. I. c. XVI.

[k] Diod. Sic. l. V. p. 388. edit. Wessel. 1746. Tournefort, Voyage, t. I. p. 53. Savary, Lettres sur la Grèce, p. 242.

oaks; the *arbutus*, the *andracne*, *cistus* and *phylleria* grow on the southern sides; cedars, pines and cypresses adorn the eastern plains; the part towards the west is nearly perpendicular and forms a line of steep rocks which it is impossible to scale. There is a third chain of mountains on the east of the island, it is not so well known as the others; the most of them are calcareous or cretaceous; but the mountain of Malava near the gulf of Suda is composed of schistus; granite is found in great quantities above its base. The climate of Crete and all the islands in the Archipelago is tempered in summer by the wind which the natives call *enbat*, it blows from the north from eight o'clock in the morning till evening. The rivers on the island may be compared to mountain torrents; the north-east coast is sinuous, but on the south there is not a harbour or road where vessels can anchor in safety. The vallies or sloping plains are very fertile, the greater portion of the land is not cultivated, but it might produce sugar-cane, excellent wine and the best kinds of fruit; the exports are salt, grain, oil, honey, silk and wool; Crete abounds in wild fowl and different kinds of game.

Climate.

Productions.

Olivier informs us that there are ten or twelve thousand Turks and two or three thousand Greeks in the town and harbour of Candia; the fortifications erected by the Venetians have been repaired, the houses which the same people built, are now fallen into decay.[1] Rhetymo is situated on the ruins of the ancient Rhitymnæ, its population does not exceed five or six thousand souls, and the number of Greeks is nearly equal to that of the Turks. Canea, which is encompassed by a strong wall and a broad ditch, is peopled by four thousand Turks, two or three thousand Greeks and some Jews; these three towns are the capitals of three *pachaliks* into which the island is divided. The Turks in Crete lead a pastoral life, the Abdiotes or the descendants of the Saracens possess about a twentieth part of the villages on the south of Mount Ida, al-

Towns.

[1] Olivier, Voyages, t. I. p. 338.

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though the number of individuals is not much more than four thousand, they are independent of the Turks; the Spachiotes. Spachiotes are sprung from the ancient inhabitants and retain their freedom, they are included in the *pachalik* of Candia, they elect their own chiefs and occupy the high mountains which extend to the west from the province of Felino to that of Amari; their trade is carried on at the small port of Spachia their capital, some of them are addicted to piracy, but the shepherds, farmers and artisans are the most industrious people in Crete.

The Cyclades. The Archipelago is covered with islands, a thousand clear channels reflect the images of white rocks, verdant hills and sloping vineyards; the whole still exhibits the picture that Virgil has drawn, but if Horace were now to personify the ship that carried his friend, he might inform it that pirates were more dangerous than winds or quicksands.

Naxos, the largest of the Cyclades, contains about ten thousand inhabitants; high mountains extend across it, their base is composed of schistus and granite, white marble or hard limestone rests above the schistus, and from these rocks issue a great many springs that water and fertilize the plains;[m] the produce of the island consists of wines, wheat, barley, oil, oranges, lemons, peaches and figs, cheese which is exported to Constantinople, cotton, honey and wax; the vintage was one year so abundant that the people were obliged to pour their wines into the cisterns of the Capuchins;[n] the island has no harbour nor good anchorage. Amorgo and Stampalia are situated on the south-east of Naxos, the one is famed for its vineyards, the other for its orchards; they are provided with safe harbours, and the rocks on both of them are covered with cedars and mastich trees. Nanphi abounds in partridges, Santorini, the volcanoes of which we have already endeavoured to describe, lies to the west of it; the ancient

[m] Tournefort, t. I. p. 213. Olivier, t. I. p. 313.

[n] Villoison, MS. Annales des Voyages, II. p. 152.

Thera is not now covered with ashes and pumice stones; it is fertile in corn, strong wine and cotton which is not as in the other islands planted every year; its population amounts to 10,000, and all the inhabitants are Greeks. Paros, which is situated further towards the west, is peopled by two thousand souls, the island is known on account of its marble, its arid soil is fertilized by heavy dews, the harbour is the best in the Archipelago. We have already taken notice of the caves in Antiparos and Policandro, and the extinguished volcanoes in Milo, the last island is unhealthy but fruitful in maize, cotton, melons and coloquinteda; its port is commodious and protected at its entrance by basaltic rocks. The subterranean galleries in Milo are probably the remains of an ancient labyrinth ;[o] a fine clay, *(terra cimolita)* is almost the only production of Kimoli or Argentera.

As we return from these islands towards Attica, we pass on the right the healthy Siphante, whose inhabitants cultivate their fields and neglect their mines, on the same side is Seripho or the head of Medusa, on which all who looked were changed into stone, its natural productions may explain the origin of the fable.[p] Thermia derives its name from its warm springs, and is fertile in corn and fruit; Zea, although diminished by earthquakes, still retains its good harbour; it was on that island that the Parian marbles were discovered, and a Danish traveller has lately collected on it many valuable monuments.[q]

Islands in the Gulf of Athens.

Colouri or, as it is always called in history, Salamis is situated near the same coasts of Greece; Engia or Ægina, once a populous island, is now uninhabited; Hydra, though nowise famous in ancient times, has become the residence of an industrious and free people, their trading vessels sailed formerly to all the ports in the Mediterranean; the inhabitants are now fighting in the

Hydra.

[o] D'Urville, Nouv. Ann. des Voyages, t. XXVII. p. 145.

[p] Tacitus, Annal. IV. c. XXI. Tournefort, I. p. 179.

[q] Brondsted, Voyage en Grèce.

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foremost ranks against Turkish oppression; the most of the people reside in the town, which is one of the finest in Greece; the total population is not much more than 40,000, Spezia is a small island in the neighbourhood of Hydra.

Continuation of the Cyclades.

Miconi lies to the north of Naxos, and is peopled by 4000 mariners and pirates; Syra, though moist and cold, is fertile in grain, the barren heights of Delos rise between the two last islands, all the Greeks once repaired thither to celebrate the games in honour of Apollo; it is now uninhabited and overrun with rabbits. Tenas, one of the most delightful islands in the Archipelago produces silk, figs, oranges and wine, but not enough of corn for the consumption of its inhabitants, who amount to 20,000. Andros on the other hand although very fertile, is said not to contain more than 12,000; it is well watered and its mountains are covered with forests.

Negroponte or Egripo.

The strait of Bocca Silota, in which the Greek fleet was lost on its return from Troy, separates the Cyclades from Negroponte or Egripo, the ancient Euboea, an island that still abounds in flocks, corn and wine. The olive thrives on it, its thick forests supply the inhabitants with naval timber and surround as in the time of Chrysostom, romantic and solitary vallies;[r] the irregular movements in the Euripus, the strait that separates the island from the neighbouring continent have been already mentioned; a bridge has now been erected from Euboea to the mainland, Negroponte or Egripo, the capital, *one of the keys of Greece*, is well fortified and peopled by 16000 souls.

Sporades.

The islands on the northern part of the Archipelago are placed at greater distances from one another; Scopelo is covered with vineyards, and Scyros is well known on account of its valuable and extensive marble quarries, Skiathos has a large and safe anchorage,[s] the monks of Athos export from Sarakina or the ancient Peparethos the rich wine, so much prized by the ancients;[t] the

[r] Dio Chrysost. In orat. Eub.
[s] Annales des Voyages, X. p. 219.
[t] Villoison, Annales des Voyages, II. 157.

inhabitants of Thasos on the coast of Thrace work in their quarries or cultivate their vines; Lemnos or Stalimene is provided with a good harbour, and its population is not less than 8000 souls; travellers have observed the remains of a volcano by which, it is supposed, a promontory and a small adjoining island were destroyed.[u] Samodraki or the ancient Samothrace once celebrated for its mysteries is now peopled by villagers, and in many places covered with woods.

Seven Ionian islands.

Some other islands are situated near the continent of Greece, they were lately united into a separate state under the protection of England and under the name of the Ionian republic; they have been for a long time freed from the Ottoman yoke, and were successively possessed by the Venetians, the French and the Russians. These islands are refreshed by gentle zephyrs, the spring is of long duration, and the heat of summer is not excessive; the soil is for the most part rocky and arid, but wherever there is enough of earth, it is covered with olive, lemon, orange and fig trees that display throughout the year their fruits, flowers and foliage. In some places the vintage is gathered four times in the year, and the rose appears in luxuriance in the midst of winter.

Corfu.

Corfu is the most important of these islands, a range of hills extends across it from north to south, San Stephano or their summit is not higher than 1400 feet; the island is about seventy miles in length by thirty in breadth, and contains a population of 70,000 souls; the olive arrives at greater perfection than in any other part of Greece, but the oil obtained from it is acrid. Corfu was for a long time considered the strong hold of Italy against the attacks of the Mussulmans; the capital of the same name, the only important station on these settlements, is regularly fortified, its inhabitants amount to 16,000; the island is separated from the continent of Epirus, by a strait not broad-

[u] Buttmann, Mémoire sur le volcan de Lemnos. Ann. des Voyages, VI. 160. Dureau de la Malle, Mémoire sur l'ile de Chryse, ibid. IX. p. 51.

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er than two miles, and on one part of it there is a safe and convenient harbour; the country is peopled by Greeks, some Italian families reside in the town.

Paxo. The small island of Paxo lies six miles to the south of Corfu; no fresh water spring has been discovered on it; the land does not yield much corn or pasture, but is fruitful in oil and wine, it is peopled by six or seven thousand Greeks.

Santa Maura. Santa Maura, the ancient Leucadia, is about thirty miles long and sixteen broad, and contains a population of 22,000 Greeks; some writers maintain that it was formerly united to the continent by an isthmus which was cut by the Corinthians; it is at present joined to it by sand banks and a series of wooden bridges; Amaxichi or the principal town contains about 6000 souls; travellers remarked, among the antiquities of the island, an aqueduct with three hundred and seventy arches built after the Roman manner, it rested on the sand banks between the island and the continent, and communicated at its extremity with the town of Amaxichi; it has been lately destroyed by an earthquake.

Cephalonia. Cephalonia, although in a political point of view less important than Corfu, is more extensive and nearly as populous; it is about 170 miles in circumference, and contains sixty or seventy thousand individuals. The inhabitants are courageous, shrewd and intelligent, but revengeful and indifferent about the means by which their ends may be accomplished; a traveller says that Cephalonia has produced more than one Ulysses.

An excellent harbour is situated between the two small towns of Argostoli and Luxuri, it has sometimes contained one hundred and fifty trading vessels; the country is hilly, but fertile in grapes, and yields a great quantity of oil and wine; the summit of Mount Aimos rises to the height of 4000 feet above the level of the sea.

Ithaca. Teachi is believed to be the ancient Ithaca, it lies near the last island and is sometimes called little Cephalo-

nia; it is fifty miles in circumference, studded with villages, and its population amounts to six or seven thousand souls.

Zante. Zante, the largest of them all after Corfu and Cephalonia, is not more than twelve miles distant from the last; it is twenty-four miles in length and nineteen in breadth, and inhabited by 40,000 Greeks, who still retain in a greater degree than their neighbours, the manners and customs of their illustrious ancestors; much, however, has been said of their perfidy, vindictive disposition and great corruption; Zante, the capital, is the largest town in the Ionian islands, it is peopled by 20,000 inhabitants, and the Jews make up a twelfth part of that number. Different parts of it have been frequently visited by earthquakes; its productions are Corinthian raisins, oil, cotton and wine; it is called by the Venetians the *fior di Livante.*

Cerigo. Cerigo or the ancient Cythera lies to the south of the Morea, and at a considerable distance from the other islands; it belonged at one time to the Venetians, at present it forms a part of the new republic; the land is stony, but on the other side of the rocks which surround the island, there are many well-watered plains, fertile corn fields and rich pastures; the inhabitants are Greeks, and most of them lead a rural life, their number is equal to nine or ten thousand. Some curious and rare plants are enumerated in the flora of Cerigo.

Ionian republic. The Ionian republic is peopled by 220,000 inhabitants, its revenue amounts to nearly L. 100,000, and its national militia to four or five thousand men. Some frigates display the British flag on these islands, and England maintains on them 2400 soldiers.

The English government expends annually L. 50,000 in keeping up the fortifications and in paying part of the military establishment; it is thus enabled to command the Adriatic and to guard the Archipelago. The Ionians are divided into nobles, burgesses and agriculturists; their political institutions are of an aristocratic character; the

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Greek religion is now that of the state, but the clergy who were kept in ignorance by the Venetians are not at present desirous of improvement; Lord Guildford has founded a college at Corfu, were his example imitated, the light of knowledge might again be diffused over Greece.

BOOK XCIX.

EUROPE.

Turkey. Western Provinces. Albanians and Proto-Slavonians.

THE Solimans and Amuraths consider the Adriatic Sea the boundary of the Turkish empire, it is fortunate that it does not extend to its natural limit; the progress of Ottoman usurpation has been checked by the spirited resistance of the Albanians, Bosnians and Servians; these three nations do not obey implicitly the dictates of the Porte; surrounded by despotic states, they are free, or at all events possess many important privileges. The islands and the maritime country were under the protection of Venice once the mistress of the Adriatic; Ragusa and Montenegro have retained their independence; the possessions of England and Austria form a barrier against the inroads of the Crescent. The Austrian frontier commencing at Orsova, extends along the Danube and the Save across the Croatian mountains and, with the exception of two interruptions, encompasses by its numerous windings the whole of Dalmatia, Ragusa and Cattaro; the length of the line thus formed is 230 leagues, whilst that of the frontier from Cattaro across Servia is not more than ninety; these artificial boundaries shall be disregarded, they are insignificant in comparison of those established by nature.

It is true that the western mountains in Turkey are not well known; we have already had occasion to make a si-

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milar observation in speaking of the chains which separate Albania and Epirus from Macedonia and Thessaly. It has not hitherto been determined whether they form a continuous range or an elevated ridge crowned at different distances by lofty hills, it is impossible from the want of measurements to arrive at any accurate decision on the subject, but it is certain that numerous branches extend from these mountains eastwards, some of them, such as the Tomourki from which the Voiourra descends, and the Kimara or Acroceraunians whose rugged rocks project over the sea, are not less than 4000 feet in height. The whole of Epirus or the lower Albania is covered with mountains, the most of them calcareous and furrowed by deep ravines; but travellers have given us no information concerning the country to the north of the Aous or Voiourra. Shall we imitate the profound silence of geographers, or try to discover the nature of the land from some incidental and detached data left by historians, and the indications derived from Albanian and Slavonic names? Our rash attempt may perhaps awaken the curiosity of future travellers.

Albano-Dalmatian Mountains.

Mountains of Albania.

We observe several extensive plains on the maps of Mean and Upper Albania, the lofty chain of Scardus or Scodrus under the names of Gliubotin and Nissava-Gora, appears to form a great semicircle which encompasses the spacious basins of the double Drino and the Moraca. We shall show that the country so ill represented on the maps is as mountainous near the sea as it is in the interior; Cæsar speaks of the lofty and rocky coast round Dyrrachium or Durazzo and the steep banks of the Apsus,[a] Lucan calls the Gemnus an impetuous torrent.[b] If these facts be connected with the details into which the historian of Scanderbeg enters concerning the rocky nature of the land in the country of the Mirdites and with the descriptions of the passes of Candavia,[c] a region continuous to that

[a] Cæsar, B. Civ. XI. [b] Lucan, Phars. V. 465.
[c] Lucian, VI. 331. Senec. Ep. III.

of the Mirdites, it must follow that there are two distinct ranges in Albania; the precipitous and bold rocks of the one rise from the ocean, the other commencing at four or five leagues from the sea, joins the lofty mountains near the lakes of Achrida and Malik. The steep coast near Dulcigno and Antivari indicates the height of the plain of Scutari, and on the north of its lake, the names of Podgoritza and Gouri mark a second degree of elevation. The inaccessible heights of Montenegro and the steep rocks round the gulf of Cattaro lead us to suppose that the interior of southern Dalmatia is crowned by a high ridge; the position of the Roman road in that country is now unknown, but Berziminium signifies a place in the neighbourhood of precipices.[d] The most frequented mountains in Austrian Dalmatia extend to the sea and terminate in steep calcareous rocks, which together with the islands at no great distance from them, are probably of the same formation as the chain or high country between Bosnia and Turkish Dalmatia; in that lofty region are situated the Albanian mountains of Ptolemy, or the Albians of Strabo, or the present Vitoraga, Radussa, Planitza and Ranick, it exhibits the phenomenon of an extensive range without an outlet, a fact which has hitherto escaped the attention of geographers.

Central ridge of Dalmatia.

The ridge commences below Mount Vitorogo near the marshes of Czermi-Lug to the west of Glamocz, it extends by Livno and Jmoski to Mount Czerlievisca on the north of Vergoras; its length is about sixty English miles, its breadth varies from ten to twenty; there are within the space inclosed by it eight lakes or marshes, of these the Kutcho-Blaton, the Proloza and nine small rivers have no issues; other stagnant waters are situated near them; rain is of rare occurrence in the districts, the little that falls is absorbed in the land. That singular configuration of the high country between Bosnia

[d] Birziminium is derived from the ancient Albanian word Brezimenuem.

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Plain of Kosovo.

and Dalmatia appears anew near the sources of the Drinna in the *White Plains*, (Bielopoli,) and more remarkably on the large and celebrated plain of Kosovo near the sources of the Ibar, and not far from those of the Vardar. The outlets to the sea correspond with the character of the country; a river which falls after a course of fifty miles, into a gulf, waters the almost maritime vallies of Popovo. The mountains are without doubt similar to those in Carniola, in other words, they form a calcareous ridge bounded by sloping plains, and are in many places cut by caverns. Bosnia and Servia are mountainous regions, but the hills are not exclusively calcareous; schistus and granite are occasionally observed, and the course of the rivers proves that the form of the vallies is different, all of them terminate in the great plain of the Danube. Few topographical works have been published concerning these countries, the information in the few that exist is very scanty; the height of mountains is not mentioned, the geological index is imperfect. The word Nissava-gora or the Slavonic term for the heights[e] between the Moraca and the Drinna, may indicate a lower level than that of Scardus; but almost all the Bosnian mountains have derived their names from the trees which grow on them; and as the Slavonian terms of the middle ages have been mixed with ancient Illyrian or Albanian, it is useless to analyze them. Mount Balle is indeed, as its Albanian name signifies, the *head* of a small group in Dalmatia, but other points of greater importance cannot be so easily explained.

Some writers insist that there are basaltic columns on the Stolacz range, others maintain the contrary. The mounts Czemerno are situated in the *heart* or middle of Servia,[f] and are marked as a lofty chain in the map of Bield, but it is doubtful if they be correctly represented. We may expect that ere long the geography of these regions will be better known.

[e] It corresponds with the Moravian term Gesenkergebirge.

[f] Zemera in Albanian signifies the heart.

Climate, vegetation.

The climate may be more easily determined; the countries on the Adriatic, or Albania and Dalmatia are subject not only to the warm temperature of Italy, but to droughts and sudden and violent north winds. The territory included within the basin of the Danube, (Bosnia and Servia,) resembles Austria and Transylvania as to climate, it is exposed to the north wind, its elevation is considerable. The cold and damp weather that prevails in the high districts during four months in the year, is to be imputed in a great degree to the position of the mountains on the south of Trawnik, and on the east of Bosnia. The Albano-Dalmatian flora is connected with the Italian, but the Bosno-Servian with those of Austria, Hungary and Transylvania; the plants have only been carefully examined in a few districts. The vine thrives on the banks of the Danube and the Save, the olive rises from the shores of the Adriatic to the first heights in Dalmatia and Albania; two low regions are thus marked by the limits of vegetation, the high country between them is noted for its fertile fields, excellent pasturage, lofty forests and mines rich in gold and iron. Such at least is the description that Strabo gave when he advised the Romans to cultivate and civilize it;[g] and his account of the Illyrian regions is perhaps the best that has hitherto appeared.

Lower Albania or Epirus.

The lower Albania or the ancient Epirus lies to the south of the fortieth parallel; we shall consider it on that account as a distinct region; its climate is colder than that of Greece, the spring does not set in before the middle of March, and the heat of summer is oppressive in July and August; in these months many streams and rivers are drained, the grass and plants are withered. The vintage begins in September, and the heavy rains during December are succeeded in January by some days of frosty weather.[h] The oak trees, and there is almost every kind of

[g] Strab. VII. p. 219, ed. Casaub.

[h] Pouqueville, t. II. p. 263—265.

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them, arrive at great perfection;[i] the plane, the cypress and manniferous ash appear near the sea coast beside the laurel and the lentisk; but the forests on Pindus consist chiefly of cedars, pine, larch and chesnut trees.[k] Many of the mountains are arid and sterile, such as are sufficiently watered, are verdant or covered with the wild vine and thick groups of elders; in spring their sides are clad with flowers, the violet the narcissus and hyacinth appear in the same profusion as in the mild districts of Italy. The inhabitants cultivate cotton and silk, but the olive, for want of proper care, does not yield an abundant harvest, the Amphilochian peach, the arta nut, and the quince grow in a wild state in the woods and uncultivated land.

Animals.

Epirus was once famous for its oxen, the breed was improved by King Pyrrhus,[l] it has now degenerated, they are small, stunted and ill shaped. The horses of the same country, says Virgil, are swift in the race; they are not large, but spirited and active. The Malapian shepherd's dog is strong, courageous, vigilant and faithful. The bear is a harmless inmate of the forests in Pindus, but the wolf and the jackal are seen amidst the ruins, and pursue their prey in the deserts. Numerous flocks of water-fowl hover round the lakes, and the Ambracian gulf abounds in shell-fish and molusca.

Valley of Janina.

Janina,[m] the capital of Epirus, and a place of considerable trade, is peopled by 40,000 inhabitants, it is situated on the basin of the ancient Hellopia, and on the banks of the lake Acherusia, the waters of which are discharged into a subterranean abyss. Lord Byron viewed the valley from the monastery of Zitza, the scenery has been described by the English poet; Pouqueville gives an account of its fruitfulness, and forms some conjectures about the existence of volcanoes from the red colour of the clay, and the sulphurous odour that emanates from the dried

[i] Theoph. Hist. Plant. II. 3.
[k] Pouqueville, II. p. 186, p. 274; IV. p. 412.
[l] Plin. VII. 44. Arist. Anim. III. 16. [m] The ancient Euroea.

turf or peat; if these be indications of volcanoes, there must be subterranean fires beneath most marshes. The mountains like all those in Epirus are calcareous, cavernous and probably placed between ridges of granite that rise from a common base; the ancient Acheron or the present Glikis has been considered from the remotest antiquity, the subterranean outlet of the lake Acherusia; and the Velchi, a feeder of the Kalamas or ancient Thyamis, issues from beneath a mountain, and receives the waters of the lake Labdistas which communicate with the lake Janina.[n]

Wallachians on Mount Pindus.

The snow that begins to fall on Mount Pindus in the beginning of September supplies the sources of three rivers, the Aspro-Potamo or Achelous, the Arta or ancient Arachtos or Arethon, and the Voioussa or Aous; these regions were formerly inhabited by the *Athamanes* and *Perhæbi*, and are at present by the Wallachians, who, it is likely, have possessed the mountains a longer time than is generally believed, although it must be admitted that the name of *megalo-vlachie* was first applied to the country by the Byzantines; the principal villages are Mezzovo and Calarites; the inhabitants are industrious, and the greater number are engaged in trade; sumptuary laws are in force amongst them, their happiness consists in a frugal and laborious life.

Arta is situated on the river of the same name, and at the place where it begins to be navigable for boats; the inhabitants carry on a trade in wheat, cotton and woollen stuffs; the ancient Ambracia has been transported by some geographers to the banks of the small river Charadrus or Rhogus, but it cannot be reasonably doubted that it was built on the present site of Arta,[o] or in a fertile valley near the harbour of Salagora on the large gulf of Arta, which, if its nu-

[n] Carte des environs de Janina, par Barbie du Bocage.

[o] "Ambracia was 80 stadia distant from the gulf, (Scylax,) and 180 from Argos Amphilochicum." (Polybius.) Arta is the only place with which these two measurements correspond. "Ambracia is encompassed on the east by hills, and its citadel stands on one of them; it is surrounded on the west by open plains and the river Aracthus or Arethon." (Tit. Liv.) M. Pouqueville

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merous windings be included, is at least equal to thirty or forty leagues in circumference; some convenient harbours, fishing stations and promontories covered with trees are situated on the sides of the gulf; Prevesa commands its narrow entrance, by which vessels that do not draw more than twelve feet and a half of water can pass; the same town fronts the ancient Actium.

Suliotes.

The Acheron waters the rugged and rocky district of Souli, which resisted a long time the arms of Ali-Pacha; the Suliotes have, since the death of that tyrant, recovered their liberty, and repeopled their villages; the town of

Paramithiotes.

Paramithi lies to the west of Souli, and its name has been extended to a pastoral tribe that subsist chiefly by plunder; their total number amounts to 15,000, and there are amongst them nearly as many Christians as Mussulmans.

Parga.

Parga stands on a rock, a harbour is attached to it, the place has been abandoned by its inflexible inhabitants, who sacrificed their possessions, and carried away the bones of their ancestors rather than become subject to the Turks. England was compelled to fulfil a solemn treaty

must admit that the above description is wholly inapplicable to any place on the Rogous. D'Anville considers the Inachus a branch of the Acheloüs, an absurd hypothesis, and one that is wholly refuted by the ancient maps of Palma and Pouqueville, but Reichard adheres to the supposition of D'Anville. Paulmier de Grentesmenil believes the Inachus, the Arachtus or Arethos to be one and the same river, and that it descends from the heights of Findus. (Græc. Antiq. p. 148, 320, 321.) Mannert supposes the Inachus a torrent in the neighbourhood of Argos Amphilochicum, but that it has been confounded with the sources of the Arachtus and Acheloüs. Grentesmenil and Mannert might have cited in corroboration of their opinion the author de Fluminibus, who alludes to the Inachus under the remarkable name of the Haliacmon. It is only necessary to read these authors to be convinced of the error which M. Pouqueville has committed in applying the name of the Arachthus or Arta to the Rogous, and that of the Inachus to the Arachtus. It may be added, that the word *Ratous* in Strabo ought perhaps to have been written Ragous, the letters Γ and Τ might have been easily confounded by the transcriber. If this opinion be admitted it would follow that the Rhogus mentioned by Grentesmenil is the present Louro or the ancient Charadrus. The Greek word χαραδρα, signifies *a torrent*, χαραδρουσθαι, *to fall like a torrent*, ραγη, signifies *a precipice*, and all these terms are descriptive of the Louro or Rogous.

into which it had entered, but the ignorance or simplicity of its ambassadors was unworthy the representatives of a European kingdom.

Philates.

Many flourishing villages are scattered throughout the valley of Kalamas; the *Philates* or the inhabitants cultivate their gardens, olive trees and corn fields, and pay a tribute that they may be defended against the aggressions of the Arnauts or Albanians. Butrinto, an old Venetian fortress, and Delvino, the residence of a Sanjak, are situated in an arid country, which is bounded by the Acroceraunian or Chimara mountains; the savage Chimariots earn a wretched and precarious livelihood by piracy and plunder; the large harbour of Aulona, a town celebrated for its manufactures, lies beyond the mountains.

Basin of the Aous.

We shall return to Pindus, and survey the plain of the Voiussa, such is the present Albanian name of the river, and it means a never-failing current; but the Turkish geographer, Hadgi-Khalfa, calls it the Vedis, a word which in the hymns of Orpheus is synonymous with water, and not unlike the corresponding terms in Albanian, Slavonian and some Gothic dialects; these two words were first applied by the Illyrians or ancestors of the present Albanians, but the substantives, *aous*, *avis* and *aias* are derived from an ancient Greek dialect, in which *aa* signifies water. The town of Konitza, perhaps the ancient Antigonia, stands in a green valley surrounded on the upper basin of the river with high mountains;[p] the other towns are Premithi, the ancient Brebeta and Kleissura, the last is built on an important pass that has been sometimes confounded with the one near the sources of the Aous. The river crosses the defiles of Kleissoura, and receives the tributary streams, which derive their name from the town of Argyrokastron or the ancient Argyas. Tepelen is situated below it in a desert and gloomy valley, it claims the doubtful honour of having given birth to Ali-Pacha, who was a long time the dreaded tyrant, the severe master and merciless executioner of the Albanians.

[p] Pouqueville, i. 171.

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M. Pouqueville discovered the Nymphæum at the confluence of the Suchista and Aous; the ancients inform us that flames in the midst of streams and verdant meadows issued from that extensive bed of fossil pitch; such phenomena are at present rare, the flames when they are seen are not very vivid.[q]

Nymphæum.

Central Albania.

Central Albania, or as it was called by the natives Musachi, is watered by the *Ergent* or Krevasta, the ancient Apsus and Artanes.[r] The important town of Borat, which rises near olive woods and vineyards, was known in the middle ages by the Bulgaro-Slavonian names of Beligrad and Balagorod or White Town.[s] The fertile but ill-cultivated country is covered with flocks and herds, and the Zigennes or gipsies kindle their fires in the woods. Elbassan, which is situated on the Scombi or ancient Genusus, and Durazzo, a maritime town are peopled by freebooters and pirates.

Mirdites.

The Mati or the ancient Mathis waters a mountainous country, which is inhabited by the Mirdites, an Albanian and Christian people, in some measure independent, more civilized and less dishonest than their neighbours; they are indebted for these advantages which they retain in the midst of barbarians to a virtuous and enlightened priesthood. The Mirdites have the right of managing the affairs of their own country, and of imposing taxes, but they are obliged to furnish a certain number of men for the Ottoman armies; the catholic religion predominates in their territory; the Christian population is not less than

[q] Pouqueville, I. 272.

[r] Commena uses the word Chansanes for Artanes, from the last are derived Arzanes and Argenta, which have the same meaning as Artanes in Bythinian, Arda and Arzus in Thracian, and Arzanius in Armenian.

[s] Palmier de Grentesmenil observes rightly that the Byzantine term Τὰ Βαλαγρίτα, is probably an imitation of the Greek *Pulcheriopolis*; the Illyrian name is unknown. It is possible that it might have been the *Parthenia* of Polybius, the Parthenorum oppidum of Cæsar; and as *Barthe* or *Ibarthe* signifies white in Albanian, Ptolemy might have called it the Albanopolis of the Albani.

250,000 souls;[t] they are governed by two *prinks* or chiefs, one spiritual, who is the mitred abbot of Orocha, the other temporal, who is sprung from the family of the Lechi. Dion-Cassius calls the Mirdites the Merdi, and places them on Mount Scardus; the famous Castriota or Scander-Beg, so long the terror of the Ottoman armies, was a native of the country, he was born in the town of Croya or Crouia, which signifies the metropolis; his ashes rest within the walls of Alessio, his countrymen have bestowed on him the extraordinary surname of the Albanian dragon;[u] his mighty deeds are still recorded in their songs.

Lake of Ochrida.

The valley of the Black Drino extends beyond these countries, and the lake of Ochrida or Achrida is situated on the highest part of the basin which forms the common centre of Albania and Macedonia; a town of the same name has been built on the banks of the lake in a fertile district that abounds in fruit, rich pastures, and silver and sulphur mines. Geographers and travellers have entered into long discussions about the position of the town; it is doubtful if another Achrida was situated on a hill, and also if that ancient Achrida occupied the site of the Greek town Lychnidus, which was destroyed by an earthquake; its ruins, it is said, are still to be seen on the south-east of the lake; it is uncertain whether Lychnidus or Tauresium was the same place as the Justiniana Prima. We may add to the list of these difficulties, it has not been determined if the shady vale of Gheortcha joins, as M. Pouqueville supposes, the basin of the Scombi or the ancient Genusus, or if the Devol enters the lake Achrida by the river of Bogradessi. Anne Comnena says expressly that "the Dryman issues from the district of *Deabolis*, crosses the lake Lychnidus, and is enlarged by impetuous torrents; the account given by the Byzantine Princess is not contradicted in the learned researches of M. Pouqueville. The Black Drino flows from Ochrida across the districts on the upper and lower Dibra, the native country of bar-

[t] Pouqueville, II. p. 548.

[u] Culscedra Arbenit. (Ibarthe.)

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barous soldiers, some of whom have distinguished themselves in the Algerine armies, and ascended the throne of the Deys. The river continues its course northwards, and is joined near Stana by the White Drino, that descends in an opposite direction from the almost unknown region in which is situated the town of Perserendi or the birth-place of Justinian, and, according to the natives, the Justiniana Prima; but the barbarism of the inhabitants, who are almost as unsocial as the bears and wolves on their mountains, renders the place inaccessible. The united streams of the Drinos water the fertile and romantic plain in which travellers seek for the town of *Dukagin;* the district of Za-Drina and its thirty-two villages are situated near the embouchure of the river, and peopled by fierce Albanians, who still retain their independence.

Upper Albania, Scodra.

The valley of the Drino forms a part of Upper Albania, a country that has been seldom visited by travellers; Scutari or Scodra, which the Turks have capriciously called Iskenderiah or Alexandria, holds the first rank among the towns in their empire, and is considered its bulwark on the west; it lies between the Boyana and the Drinassa, at the place where the first issues from the lake of the same name and receives the waters of the second; it is defended by two or three fortresses and an extensive rampart; the inhabitants amount to sixteen or twenty thousand, many of them are Greeks, some of the catholic, others of the eastern church; the people are employed in making arms, manufacturing woollen stuffs, building ships and in fishing on the lake. The Boyana is not navigable beyond Polna; but Dulcigno annd Antivari are provided with good harbours on the Adriatic; that part of the coast is called *Kraina* or the land by its inhabitants, the most of them are Slavonians; Antivari was peopled in the middle ages by Italian colonists.[x]

The Guegues or Guikhes.

The Guegues or red Albanians occupy the whole of the interior towards the sources of the two Drinos and

[x] Tyr. Bell. sac. II. c. xvii.

the Moraca, which is the name that the Byoaca receives before it enters the lake of Scutari or the Zenta. The country and its inhabitants are little known; M. Pouqueville[y] mentions the Zogs, the *Murdes* and the *Chiscands* in the neighbourhood of the Zenta. It is also stated that the Bardi, who inhabit the territory of Zadrina on the east, are probably descended from the Vardiæi;[z] the other tribes, of which we know nothing but the names, are the Koutchioti or fowlers, the Liaiporosches or eaters of hares, the Mousselims or tribe of Mossul, the Boukmirs or bread-eaters, the Dardes or descendants of the Dardanians, the Drivastes or a number of robbers in Rascia, and the Grouemirs or people in the country of beautiful women. The land on the east and north of Zadrina, between the Boyana and the Zem which falls into the lake Scutari, is peopled by the Pontali and the Choti, who are divided into the tribes of the Mogouls, Gastrati, Bagous and Siwans or Soans. The Pascoli, whom the Turks call *Kolbans* or shepherds, inhabit the country on the west, and the Scodrans possess the land between the Moraca and the Tara; these two rivers, it has been asserted, unite at *Limi* and form the Zem. The *Pannani* are the neighbours of the Colascinians or fierce mountaineers, whose bands have often desolated Herzgovina and Bosnia; their country extends perhaps from the mountains of Ibali to the sources of the White Drino. The districts between the rivers which flow into the Zenta and the western feeders of the Drino are peopled by the *Clementi*, a catholic tribe whose bishop resides at Saba or Sarda; the position of these places is almost unknown; many more villages are marked in the map of Upper Albania, published at Rome in the year 1692 by the college *de Propaganda fide*, than in any other of later date. The courses of the Moraca and the Zem are so imperfectly known that it is impossible to say which is the principal river. No geographer has determined the extent of *Ar-*

[y] Pouqueville, II. 512.

[z] Ortelius, the word Varalii.

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naoutlik, a country that borders on Rascia, Macedonia and Bosnia, and is peopled by Servian and Albanian savages.

Character of the Albanians.

The Albanians might become formidable to the Ottoman empire; their hireling sword is at present its chief support; the rugged and mountainous nature of their country tends to confirm them in their warlike habits. "Every man born in Albania," says Pouqueville, "may be distinguished by his physiognomy, temperament and character from the Greeks and the Turks." Strong, active and patient of fatigue, they were the soldiers of Pyrrhus, Scander-Beg and Ali-Pacha. "The Albanian troops endure the utmost rigours of winter; while day-light lasts, they are employed in their camp in wrestling or other warlike exercises; their temperance and sobriety are so great that a very small ration of bread, wheat or maize, black olives or salted pilchards is sufficient for them; the happiness of the Turk consists in indolence, that of the Albanian in action; but the latter is not excited by glory or patriotism; unless he be bribed, he seldom leaves his rugged mountains." Their leaders are as much venerated as ever were Highland chieftains by their clans; and the services of these mercenary captains and their numerous dependents, may be purchased by any government.

The women in the same country are strong and healthy; their temperate and frugal diet secures them against many diseases; they are not so early marriageable as the women in southern Greece, they retain their looks longer, and give birth to children at a more advanced age.

Religion.

Although the most of the Albanians profess Mahometanism, many of them are not very scrupulous about its precepts; few have more than one wife, and the contrary custom observed by some wealthy chieftains, is more a matter of fashion than of conscience. Although ignorant of the sciences, they know how to cut canals and bring water into their towns; unprovided with mathematical instruments, they can measure heights and distances with as much accuracy as a geometer; Mahomet-Ali and Ali-

Tepelenli have shown what the genius of the Albanians could effect in a state of ignorance and barbarism; the devoted and heroic fidelity of Mustapha Bairactar to the emperor Selim is a proof that the Albanian character is not incompatible with exalted virtue.

The Albanians are probably a tribe of the ancient Illyrians, that migrated from the inland and mountainous countries, and became known when the weakness of the Roman empire compelled the mountaineers and shepherds to trust to their own strength for the defence of their possessions; but it is not to be imagined that a primitive tribe or one which remained unmixed during two thousand years, exists in a country like European Turkey, peopled by different nations that are confounded with each other.

Origin of the Albanians, their language.

It has been shown from the language of the Albanians, that they have inhabited Europe as long as the Greeks and Celts, with whom they appear to have been connected; it is not unlikely that the Illyrians, whose language resembles the one spoken by the primitive tribes of the *Pelasghi*, *Dardani*, *Graiki and Makedones*, inhabited before the time of history, the Albanian mountains that were governed by hereditary chiefs, and situated near some tribes of that race which has been since called Slavonic. The Illyrians sent numerous colonies into Italy, but at the period of the great Celtic invasion into Greece and Asia, some Illyrians, among others the Albani, were subdued by warlike Celts and Germans in the same manner, and much about the same time that the conquest of Galatia was effected. The Romans and Italians who made themselves masters of Illyria in a later age, were incorporated with the inhabitants of towns, and from that period the pastoral tribes were distinguished by the Celtic name of Albani; their language was partly retained, but increased and corrupted by the addition of words and phrases in the vulgar Italian or *Romana rustica* and military jargon of the legions. These changes, and the fact that, in ancient times, the Æolian, the Pelasgian and perhaps the Illyrian had some affinity with the Italian,

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enable us to explain how the Albanian, the Daco-Latin, or modern Wallachian, originally formed from Dacian languages now unknown, were connected with the rustic and military dialects of the Romans; but the one and the other were again altered in the tenth century, when numerous hordes of Carpathian Slavonians, commanded chiefly by princes of the Gothic race, repeopled the south of Illyria.

It is thus that a new system may be established, of which Leibnitz [a] and Palmier de Grentesmenil [b] were not ignorant; it was in some degree elucidated by Masci [c] and Thunmann, [d] but involved in numerous difficulties by Dolci and Sestrencewitz. [e] Had it been connected with the researches of orientalists, much additional light might have been thrown on the history and ancient geography of Greece, Italy and Asia Minor. As the Albanian language is the living monument on which the whole depends, we shall examine it more fully; if we enter into a digression, it cannot be considered out of place in a geographical work.

Albanian language.

It is admitted, nay it has been partly proved by philologists, that a number of languages spoken in different countries, which extend from the banks of the Ganges to the shores of Iceland, bear some resemblance to each other. If that fact be kept in view, the mixed nature of the Albanian language cannot be thought a local and particular phenomenon, as it was considered in the time of Leibnitz, but it may be accounted for by the analogy that pervades all the Indo-Gothic tongues. Thus the word *gneri* signifies a man in Albanian, and corresponds with *aner* in Greek, *nar* in Persian, Sanscrit and Zend, and with *nero*, a strong man, *nericnne*, virile strength in the Sabine or

[a] Leibnitz. Collect. VI. p. 2, p. 138. Annal. des Voyages, III. 157.

[b] P. de Grentesmenil, Græcia Antiqua, p. 213, &c.

[c] Masci, Essai sur les Albanais. Annales des Voyages, III. 145.

[d] Thunmann, Untersuchungen uber die œstliche vœlker.

[e] Dolci, de præstantia Linguæ Illyricæ, Sestrencewitz, Recherches sur les Slaves, &c.

ancient Italian dialect; another remarkable instance may be adduced, *ziarm* is the Albanian word for heat, *tjerm* the Armenian, *thermos* the Ionian, *tharmos* the Iolian, *garm* the Persian, and *warm* the German. These examples show that the words are similar, but it cannot be determined that any one of them is derived from any other; in the same manner *reg*, a king in Albanian, is not unlike *rex* in Latin, *rix* in Celtic, *regin* in Islandic, *radja* in Sanscrit, and other synonymes, the primitives of which it is impossible to ascertain; the same remark is applicable to the grammar of the Albanian language; if it be in many respects like those of the Greek and Latin, it is a proof of its relation or connexion with these tongues, not of its derivation from them; it is certain that there must have been grammatical systems in Phrygia, Thrace and Illyria at the same time or even at an earlier age than in Greece. Illyria as well as Beotia may claim the inventions of Cadmus.

Sanscrit geographical terms.

Some Sanscrit words of a geographical nature, must be remarked by every one who studies the Albanian. *Mail*, a mountain, (hence *maina* in Thessaly and the Peloponnesus,) and *gour*, a rock or hill, are common terms in Albania; Candahar and Candavia have the same signification; these instances are by no means exceptions to the rule, with equal probability we may derive from the Sanscrit and much more readily than from the Greek, the words Hemus, Pindus, (Bindhia or Vindia,) Parnassus, (Paranischa) and Kynthos;[f] it follows from these and other examples of the same kind, that a connexion subsists between all the *Japhethic* languages, of which the high districts in Armenia might have been the common centre.

As to the character of the Albanian, it may be affirmed that more than a third of its primitives are Greek roots

[f] Kynthos in the island of Delos, Zakynthos, the island of, Arakynthos in Attica, Anakynthos in Acarnania, Berekynthos in Crete, Idem in Phrygia, from Kyntha, a sacred hill.

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reduced to their primitive, barbarous and monosyllabic form; it is equally true that the Greek words in the Albanian are most closely allied to those in the Æolic dialect, which does not differ radically from the ruder and older language of the Pelasghi,[g] that was mixed with the ancient Macedonian, Thessalian and Beotian; thus the Albanian might have been partly the same as an ancient semi-Greek dialect that was spoken before the time of Homer; the other third of the roots appears to be common to the Latin, Sabine, Italo-Celtic, German and Slavonic or to the languages that were spoken in the central and western regions of Europe. But no reason has yet been alleged, which could enable us to determine whether all its relations with these languages of ancient date, existed at the epoch when most of the European families inhabited the high countries in the peninsula of Hemus and Pindus, or whether they are later modifications resulting from different causes, among others, from the changes introduced by the Roman military colonies. The remaining roots have not been traced to their source; but from the analogy of geographical names, it is probable that they are not widely different from others in the ancient languages of Thrace and Asia Minor. We shall subjoin the proofs of these assertions, from which it may be inferred that the Albanian language is not only one of high antiquity, but serves to illustrate others of Pelasgo-Hellenic origin.

Connexion between the Albanian and Æolian.

The Æolic roots may be shown by the application of the digamma, the metathesis of the letter R, or by other transpositions peculiar to the Æolic dialect. Thus the Greek word *tragein*, to eat, becomes in the Æolic form of the infinitive, *tragen*, and by the metathesis of the R, *targen*; hence the Albanian term *darkem*, to eat. The pronoun I is expressed in the Albanian by *oun* and *oune*, which are the same as the *ion* and *ionga* of the Beotians, and the *egon* of the Æolians. The head or *bale* in Albanian corresponds with the bala of the Macedonians, and the *phala*

[g] See Paulmier de Grentesmenil, Græcia Antiqua, p. 54, 55.

of the Beotians, which are both Æolisms that were used instead of *Kephala*. The Albanian name for Slavonia is *Schienia*, the country of strangers, from *skenos*, the Æolic form of *xenos*; the Æolic word *skiphos*, a sword, may account for *Skipatar*, an Albanian name, of which the meaning has not been explained. The digamma appears in many words; thus *vraam*, to kill or injure, from *raiein*; *vel*, oil, from *elaion*; *verbuem*, to bereave, *orbare* (Latin); *verra*, fine weather, from *ear* or *er*, the spring; in like manner Voioussa, the name of a river, the ancient Aous or Aious. The Albanian is by means of its Æolic character connected with the Macedonian; *Loos*, the Macedonian name for the month of August, corresponds with the *Loonar* of the Albanians; the first and second brit, the names of two months in Albanian, recall to our recollection the *beritios* and *hyperberitios* in the Macedonian calendar. *Krios*, a word used by the Macedonian peasants, is analogous to the Albanian *kirsouer*, for ouer signifies a season.[h] We have entered on a subject, which cannot at present be fully treated; no vocabulary of the Albanian language exists; the indigenous names of all the months have not hitherto been collected.

Names of Macedonian months.

The Pelasgic character has been evinced by a curious and important fact, the names of several Greek divinities, according to Herodotus, are derived from the Pelasgic. Thus in the Albanian language, *deet* signifies the sea, hence probably Tethys the goddess of the Ocean; *dee* the earth, hence *Deo* and *Demeter*, surnames of Ceres; *héré*, the air, *Heré*, Juno; *dieli* the sun, Delios, a surname of Apollo, the god of the sun; *vranie*, a cloud, *uranos*, the heavens. Herodotus mentions Juno only among these divinities; but it is enough to show that the most ancient Greek words have been preserved in the Albanian language; besides, Herodotus, from his own confession, was ignorant of the Pelasgic; having said that the Pelasghi were of a different origin from the Greeks, he tells

Connexion with the Pelasgic.

[h] See Usserius, de Maced. et anno solari.

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us in another part of his work that they were the ancestors of the Athenians, Arcadians, and Thessalonians; it may therefore be reasonably believed that the historian has accommodated the mythology of the Pelasghi to that of the Egyptians and Lybians. The Pelasghi were supposed in ancient times to have been the first who ruled over Greece, they inhabited Pindus at a very early period, the Pelasgic Dodona was the centre of their worship, and their descendants were the people who styled themselves *Autochtones* or *Aborigines*. It is not wonderful that an old, rude, and monosyllabical dialect, although of semi-Greek origin, appeared unintelligible to an Ionian like Herodotus; the very name of the Pelasghi, as well as those of Pella, Pellené Pelion, Peligni and twenty others of places and people, may explain the old Macedonian and Thessalonian word pela, a rock or stone.[1] It is vain to regard the hypotheses of different writers, or to make the Pelasghi come from the sources of the Nile, the summits of Caucasus, or *the tower of Babel*; they were in reality the ancestors of the Greeks, the people of the old rock, the stone builders; their worship was wholly European, and founded on the belief of a supreme being and inherent powers in nature.

Names of the Pelasghi.

The names which geography, and particulary physical geography have consecrated, may be considered the most important documents of primitive history, or of history anterior to chronology. Men, long before they thought of computing years, or arranging events according to the order of their dates, designated by local denominations, taken from the dialects in which they spoke, all the objects that surrounded them; the mountains that bounded their horizon, the rivers in which their thirst was quenched, the village that gave them birth, and the family or tribe to which they belonged; had that geographical nomenclature been preserved pure and entire, a map of the world might have

1 Sturtz, de Lingua Macedonia. Tzetres, Chiliad. II. c. XVII.

been obtained, more valuable far than all the universal histories.

Connexion with the Hellenic.

It is best, in order to discover the Hellenic structure of the Albanian language, to compare words that are not of common occurrence, or such as are used in dialects little known; thus *groua* a woman, corresponds with *Graia*, a Grecian woman; *kourm*, the body, with *kormos*, a throne or trunk of a tree; *khunde*, the nose, with *chondros* cartilage; *dora*, the hand, with *doron*, the palm of the hand; *ziza*, a nipple, with *tithe*, a nurse; *groust*, the fist, with *gronthos*; *cambe*, the foot, with *kampé*, flexion; *ngrane*, to nourish with graien; *flacha*, a flame with *phlox*; *krupa*, salt, with *krŭos* crystal; *stepei*, a house, with *stephos*, a roof or covering; *brecheir*, hail, with *brechein*, to wet, and with *eir*, a tempest or thunder; *iourte*, prudent, with *iotes* prudence, (Homer); *iri*, young, with *ear* or *er*, the spring; *koitou*, I remember, with *kotheŏo*, I think; *ve*, an egg, with *oveon*, a word used in the Cretan dialect; *chata* poverty with *chatein* to want; *skepetim*, thunder, with *skepto*, I fall with force; *phare*, a division or tribe, with *pharas*, the *pars* of the Latins; *prink*, a father or chief, with *prin* before *(primus)*, *frike*, fear, with *phrix*, trembling; *bastakes*, a Beotian term for a farm, with *bastine*, a rural domain in Albanian. We have cited such examples as are not very obvious, the relation between them is not at first discovered; but a great number of analogies more evident and more easily traced, must strike those who study the language. Many Albanian and Greek words differ only in their grammatical forms, thus *piim* and *piein*, to drink, *pounouem* and *ponein*, to labour, *zieim* and *zeein*, to boil; *luem*, to anoint, *laam* to wash, and *loucin* to bathe; *pituem* to ask, and *pythesthai*; *prim* and *proienai*, to go before; the prepositions, *nde*, within, *(endo,) paa*, without, and *apo* from, *me* and *meta*, with; the adverbs *mo* and *me* not; and other instances too numerous to be adduced.

It is observable that some Albanian terms are Hellenic compounds, although there are no single words corresponding with them in the Greek. *Panoni*, the Albanian term for anarchy, is formed from the preposi-

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tion *pa*, which is not different from the Greek *apo*, and *nomos*, *law*; it may therefore be considered the same, as the old or obsolete Greek term *aponomia*. The Greek word *hippos*, a horse, was probably derived from the Albanian verb, *hippūne* to mount or leap; the names of mountains and people in primitive Greece, were perhaps of Albanian origin.

Connexion with the Latin.

The Albanian words derived from the Latin might have been introduced at different epochs; at all events it is not easy to determine the relation between these two languages; some etymologists observe an analogy in the Æolic, the Albanian and ancient Latin; but much of the resemblance between the two last may be attributed to the mixture of the Celtic with the Albanian and old Italian dialects; besides, the Roman military colonies must have disseminated the *Romana rustica* in Illyria and Epirus. If the history of the Tyrrhenians and other Italian tribes were not involved in obscurity, more accurate notions might be formed on the subject, but it is easy to adduce several instances, by which it must appear that the Albanian is connected with the dialects of ancient Italy. *Kiel*, the heavens, *cœlum*; *lioume*, a river, *flumen*; *mik*, a friend, *amicus*; *sok*, a companion or ally, *socius*; *lake*, a marsh or lake, *lacus*; *flochete*, hair, *floccus*; *lufta*, war or struggle, *lucta*; *pisch*, a fish, *piscis*; *peeme* and *poma*, fruits; *remb*, a branch, *ramus*; *fakie*, the face, *facies*; *martuem*, to marry, *maritare*; *turbuem*, to trouble, *turbare*; *pulchuem*, to please, *placere*; *desciruem*, to desire, *desiderare*; *kiam*, to cry, (*chiamar*); *vape*, moderately warm, *vapidus*; *spess* thick, *spissus*; *cundra* against, *contra*; *per* by or through, *per*. It may be remarked that the Latinisms or Italianisms in the Albanian are very like those in the Wallachian, or Daco-Roman; that circumstance alone may, in some measure, show how long the Albanian has been connected with the Latin. The word *mi* expresses the comparative in the Albanian, and is analogous to the irregular comparatives *minor* and *melior* of the Latins.

Ssum, the term for the superlative, (or according to its pronunciation, *schoume,)* appears to be the same as *summe*.

Celticisms and Germanisms.

To ascertain the Celticisms and Germanisms in the Albanian is by no means an unprofitable task; they cannot be attributed to accidental causes, for these words form part of a numerous class in different languages; thus *larth* in Albanian, *lard* in French and English; *lardum* in Latin, *lar*, fat in Celtic, and *larix*, *laeriche*, *larch*, *laerke*, a resinous tree in Latin, German, English and Danish, indicate a resemblance between the northern and western tongues. *Bret*, a king, *breteri*, a kingdom, *brii*, a horn, *bar*, grass, *bres*, a girdle, *droe*, dread; *brittune*, to diffuse or radiate, and *bleem*, to buy, are evidently Celto-Gallic words. *Miel*, flour, *buck*, bread, *hethe*, fever, *goistie*, a feast, *chierra*, a car; *cand*, an angle; *gind*, kind, *tim*, smoke, (*dimma* in Swedish) *sim* a shower, *nata*, night, *dera*, a gate, *iil*, a star in the dialect of Epirus; (*ild*, fire in Danish,) *bir*, a son; *baern*, bairns; children in Danish and Scots, *oulk*, a wolf, *siou*, eyes, *ve*, an oath, and many others are almost literally German or Gothic. It is difficult to account for these facts from the migrations of different people, but they may be easily explained, if we admit that the ancient population of Hemus was made up of Celtic, Slavonic and German tribes, as well as Pelasgian, Hellenic and Asiatic.

We now come to the third division of the Albanian language, which consists of unknown roots, or at least of such as have not hitherto been explained, we might at first have been apt to leave the examination of the subject to orientalists, and to suppose that these words were exclusively of Asiatic origin, because they are apparently foreign to every known European language. But as we have occasionally been able to account for some of these roots, and to connect them, in spite of their irregularity, with the Hellenic and other European dialects, we were led to conclude that the primitives of a pure and indigenous language, like the Albanian, must have been at one time common to the Thracian, Illyrian, Phrygian and Lydian, and that the

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unknown roots are not the least valuable part of each or all these languages. The Albanian, according to this hypothesis, might become as useful, in a historical point of view, as the language of Orpheus or Deucalion, and might enable us to explain the meaning attached to the names of many ancient people and places. We have been able in the present imperfect state of our information to interpret some of these words; thus, it is likely that Mount Scardus has been so called from its indented peaks, for *scarra* and *card* signify a saw, *(sierra)*.[k] The Scomius is a high mountain, *(scume mal)*; the passes of Succi in Hemus extend across small hills, (sukhe.) The Oeagrius, or Hebrus, is the river near wild woods, the Pontus abounds in marshes, the Dryn is shaded with forests. Vedi, (Aous) signifies water, and the Voioussa, a never-failing stream. Mount Bora has derived its name from its snows, (*bora* or *bdore*,) and the Bernus probably from *perrune*, a torrent; Candavia is a rugged country, and in ancient times it was traversed by winding or angular roads, (*candoign.*) But, without entering into more minute details, if the names of the districts, mountains, and rivers in the country between the Achelous on the south, mount Balle on the north-west, and Scomius on the north are for the most part of Albano-Illyrian origin, it may be allowed that the study of the Albanian is connected with that of geography. It might furnish us, too, with some interesting ethnographical indications, and serve to explain the different names that have been applied to the Albanians.

Albanians, Skipitars, &c.

A native of the country calls himself an *Arvenesce*, according to Ibarth, and a *Skipitar*, according to Thunmann. The last name, it has been said, is derived from *skip*, which denotes the language; hence *Skipitar*, he who speaks *Skip*, and *Skiperi*, the country in which *Skip* is

[k] Diction. Epirot, Bianche, (Ibarthe) incorrectly called Biondi by Major Leake. See vocabulary in Leake's Researches in Greece and those by Thunmann and Pouqueville. MS. glossary in the library of the king of France. MS. Grammars—Idem.

spoken; but no signification has been assigned to the word itself. Ancient geographers describe the Albanians as a mountainous and wandering people, early historians inform us that they became afterwards a warlike nation, hence it may be thought more probable that Skipitar means an armed man, or one provided with a sword, or *skiphos*. The word Albanian, though long[1] forgotten, is perhaps as ancient; the mount Albanus of Ptolemy is the Albia or Albion of Strabo; and the commentators are not to be commended, who effaced the Albani and Albanopolis from the text of Ptolemy; with equal justice, all the Albas and Albani in Italy, Gaul and Spain might have been obliterated from the ancient maps of these countries. Albhain in Gaelic, and Alb in Germanic signify mountain pasturage; from such facts it may be inferred that the name of the Albani is indigenous and of very ancient date; it is also likely that Arbenesce, or as it is written by the Byzantine historians, Arvanitæ, is a corruption of Albanitæ. The Turkish term Arnaut is perhaps derived from the Slavo-Illyrian *arvania*, war or combat; if that be the case, Arnaut is a literal translation of *Skipitar* or *Schypetar*.

The names of the Illyrian tribes appear to be of Albanian origin, the Parthini or Parthyni in Illyria, were the white or fair people, (i barthe,) and wholly distinct from the Parthians; the Dassaretes were isolated tribes, the Dalmates or Delmates, signify the young. There is a meaning in the names of many Albanian towns and districts, the port Eled or Elet, described by Scylax, is the genitive of Elea, which is mentioned by other writers. If so many geographical terms can be explained by means of the language still spoken in ancient Illyria, why should its origin be sought in Caucasus? It may be of use to compare these indications with others obtained from the ancient Macedonian, and it may be better to confine our

[1] Tou, itar, and atar, are Albanian terminations, which denote a profession or trade; and they correspond with the arius and tor of the Latins.

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inquiries to the countries known to the Greeks than to examine the regions beyond the Euphrates, from which it is not likely much information can be gained concerning different European states, as the Mædi, Lydi, Pelasghi, Phryges or Vrighes.

The unknown primitives in the Albanian are perhaps ancient Illyrian words; and if that opinion be correct, the inquiry may be limited to the countries within and near the boundaries of Illyria. It has been already seen that several Thracian words were not in use in Illyria and Macedonia, among others *bria*, a town, and *para*, a height or elevated place; it may be added that the terminations in *issos*, *itza*, *dava*, and *ava*, are most common in the Thraco-Getan dialects; and the Illyrian, if it did not form a separate class, was a distinct branch of the Thracian. It is not easy to account for the introduction of Strymon, a Slavonic word, and the name of a river, (*Strzumien*, in Polish; *Strœm*, *Strœmmen*, *Straum*, &c. in Scandinavian;) to trace its connexion with the Albanian is like an attempt to discover the original form of an edifice wholly in ruins. The Dardano-Illyrians, who, according to an ancient tradition, were the ancestors of the tribes dispersed in Troas, Epirus, and Italy,[m] might have been of Albanian origin; Ilion is an Albanian word, which signifies a high place; there was not only a small town in Macedonia, but a mountain of that name in Laconia; it is as rash to reject these indications as to found any conclusion on them, in the present state of our knowledge or ignorance; much greater information must be obtained, before it can be determined whether the early population of Italy were descended from the Ombrici and Siculi of ancient Illyria, or connected with the *Toskes* of modern Albania.

Albanian Grammar.

The Albanian language has been considered in its rela-

[m] Homer, Virgil, Pliny, Lycophron, &c. I am aware that the learned M. Niebuhr considered the migration of Æneas a fable; but the migrations of the Dardani might have been true, independently of the poetical fictions with which they have been mixed.

tion to geography; some remarks may be made on its grammatical structure.[n]

The Albanian has some resemblance to the Latin, the Greek and Slavonic; but it is not so rich as the two first, and its constructions are less varied than those in the last; it abounds in auxiliary words; thus to express the adjective idle, it is necessary to say, *Te pau pune*, (literally in Greek *outoi apo ponou*,) those without occupation. Its compound substantives are of two forms; the one corresponds with the *arius* or *tou* of the Latins; the other with the *erei* or *erie* of the Germans. Thus, from *hifta*, war, is derived, *luftetar*, a warrior; and from *bret*, a king, *bretetèri*, a kingdom; but the most of the compound substantives are infinitives, preceded by the neuter article; *te pym*, signifies a drink, and is the same as if we said in Italian, *il bevere*, or in French, *le boire*. The physical terms are more numerous and more varied than we might be apt to conclude from perusing the printed treatises on the subject; but there are comparatively few words that indicate the faculties or operations of the mind.

The article is generally put at the end of the substantive; thus *groue*, woman, *grouèia*, the woman, *gour*, stone, *gouri*, the stone, *barck*, belly, *barckou*, the belly; but the same rule is not applicable to the adjective; *mir*, signifies good, and *i mir*, *e mir*, *te mir* are the same word with the masculine, feminine, and neuter articles prefixed to it. The declension of the pronouns is regular, the first and second persons are in some respects analogous to the Latin. There are ten conjugations, but that number may be reduced to eight; they are distinguished by the infinitive; four terminate in *am*, *em*, *im*, and *oum*, or in the same manner as the four present tenses in the Armenian; two in *ane* and *oune*, and two in *le* and *re*. The most of the present tenses end in

[n] Osservazione Grammaticale, by F. M. Lecce, Rome 1716. Leake, Researches in Greece. Vater, Tables comparatives, &c. 1822. Vellara, Fragmens. MS.

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agn, *egn*, *ign*, and *ogn*, and the greater number of preterites in *ava*, *eva*, *iva*, and *ova*. It is not unlikely that the Albanian verb is made up of two distinct formations, introduced at different periods; the first or earliest ends in the four vowels, *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, the second must be attributed to successive additions or innovations; to distinguish the Pelasgo-Æolic from the Thracian terminations is the great difficulty in the study of the language. The infinitive is always preceded by the article *me*, when the sense is active, and by *meou*, when the sense is passive or reciprocal. The imperfect, perfect, future, conditional, imperative and infinitive are formed by inflections, and the other tenses by means of the auxiliary verbs *to have*, and *to be*. The passive is formed by the verb *to be* and the infinitive of the active voice, which is changed into a supine by the omission of the article *mi*.

The Albanian grammar is remarkable for its originality; it may be considered a monument of the simplicity of the nation for which it was framed; such might have been the grammatical systems of Orpheus, Linus and Cadmus.

Albanian alphabet.

The Albanian books published at Rome by the College *de Propaganda fide*, are printed in modern Italic characters with the addition of four other letters; the Albanians themselves make use of the modern Greek alphabet and the same four letters. But there is, if we may so term it, an ecclesiastical alphabet, which consists of thirty letters; and many of them are not unlike the Phenician, Hebrew, Armenian and Syriac characters; few of them have any resemblance with the Bulgarian or Mesogothic, and we look in vain for the Pelasgic, Etruscan or Runic letters. The ancient Albanian alphabet might have been altered by Christian priests, either in the second century when Christianity was introduced into the country, or in the ninth when the Albanian church was united with that of Rome; but it is evident that the alphabet, even in its present shape, is derived from another

much more ancient, and which at one period was used in Illyria, Macedonia and Epirus.

The national Albanian songs are illustrative of the manners of the people; it might be worth while to know them, although they are for the most part written after the time of Scanderbeg. An examination of the inscriptions which in all likelihood exist in Upper Albania, might throw additional light on the history and languages of ancient nations.

It is in the country of the Mirdites, or in the town of Scutari, that the traveller may reasonably expect to gain information concerning the manners and barbarous customs which the Illyrians have transmitted to their descendants the Albanians. The divisions by *cettas* and *pharas* were mixed with feudal customs by the Christian Albanians, who migrated into the kingdom of Naples; but in Albania itself these institutions are more connected with the character of a democracy. All the cettas in the mountains of Upper and Mean Albania join in punishing murder, rape and adultery; these crimes can only be avenged by the blood of the guilty; but theft is not a capital offence; he who steals an ox may escape punishment by paying a sum of money. In the rural assemblies of the *cettas* the members often deliberate with their swords in their hands; some of the individuals mark their skin with gunpowder, that they may more readily know the cetta to which they belong; a similar practice existed among their ancestors, the Illyrians. The sacrifice of a young woman, a wife and a mother, is recorded in the national songs. Three brothers founded the town of Scutari, and interred their sister alive near the castle; the rural genii had assured them, if that condition were fulfilled, the town would be always abundantly supplied with provisions. The victim implored her husband, (and he too was her brother,) that she might be permitted to nurse her infant; her milk flowed miraculously through an aperture in the grave; and afterwards a never-failing fountain, efficacious in the cure of all diseases, rose from her ashes. The Schypetar converses

Cettas and Pharas.

Superstitions.

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occasionally with the Mires or good goddesses,[o] and the mountaineer in the interior of Upper Albania believes, like the Servian, in supernatural prophetesses or Vyles;[p] witches, though greatly feared, are well known under their ancient Latin and perhaps Thessalian name of *striga*. Christian and Mahometan women in Albania attend funeral processions, and make the air resound with their inhuman yells. The Albanian hunters and shepherds have many traditions concerning wild beasts, the habitations of souls banished from eternal repose; but it is possible by means of enchantments and anathemas to dislodge these wretched spirits from their prison house.

Novel method of fishing.

The fishermen in the north of lake Scodra take a kind of fish, which they call *scoranza*, in the following manner:—a species of crow that is held sacred, arrives in great flocks at certain seasons of the year;—the fishermen cast their nets in the rivers and lakes;—the Iman or Greek priest pronounces his benediction;—the crows, it is said, remain while that ceremony lasts, at the edge of the water or on the branches of trees without making the least noise. The consecrated grain is afterwards thrown into the stream, it floats on the water, and attracts many fish to the surface; then, and not till then, the crows dart on them with hoarse-sounding cries, and the frightened fish are easily caught in the nets; a portion of the draught is regularly set apart for the crows and priests; and these animals seldom fail to accompany the fishermen.

Montenegro.

The district of Montenegro or the Slavonic Czerna-Gora,

[o] These divinities have been considered the Μοιραι or fates of the ancient Greeks, the names of both are pronounced in the same manner. Although the Mires worshipped by the Athenians and the inhabitants of Hellas might have been the Μοιραι, it does not follow that they were the same with the Illyrian Mires. Mir, with the articles, *i*, *e*, *te*, affixed to it, is the Albanian adjective for *bonus*, *a*, *um*, and corresponds with the ancient Greek word ἱμερος or ἰμερος, desirable.

[p] Vyle is of the same class as Si-bylla, or according to the Greek pronunciation, si-vylla; *si* is an abbreviation of *sio*, an Eolic word, which signifies *theo*; si-bylle is then a divine or godlike vyle. *Wyll* or *gwyll* is a Welsh word for a spectre or sorceress. *Vala*, of which the genitive is *vœla*, means, in Icelandic, a supernatural being with the gift of prophecy.

the Turkish Kara-Tag or the Albanian Mal-Isi, is about 150 square leagues or 1350 square miles in superficies; it is inhabited by a robust, warlike and turbulent population of 58,732 individuals; but in that number are included the inhabitants of five Servian-Greek villages, or 13,600 souls, and of five Albanian catholic villages, or 6880 persons. These villagers are the allies of the Montenegrines; thus the inhabitants on a surface of 96 square leagues or 864 square miles in that district, are not more than 38,252. The territory is divided into four *najas*,[q] and governed by a sovereign council; the members are the captains or *sardars* of each *naja*, the *knez* or chiefs of every village, and those among the aged, who are most revered by the community. The assembly meets in the burgh of Cettina; the *vladika* or president does not possess much power, and is often restrained in the exercise of his just rights by the bishop of the diocese, who resides at the fortified convent of Stagnovich in the country that once belonged to the Venetians, and is at present attached to the Austrian empire.[r] All the men in the district, from the bishop to the shepherd, are soldiers, and all of them are provided with fire-arms. The ambitious Mahmoud-Pacha was slain by Montenegrine troops, who have often defeated the Ottoman satraps of Scutari. The present bishop observing Austria and France divide the spoils of Venice, made himself master of the town and harbour of Budua, but being unable to contend against these powers, he relinquished his conquest. The Montenegrines are vindictive, jealous, and barbarous; but they are hospitable; their intercourse with one another is frequent, for they are all engaged in the same profession; patriotism is not unknown amongst them; they believe in communications with a world of spirits, and hold converse with the shades of their ancestors who wander in the clouds. Notions.

[q] Ivellio, Montenegrin, Annales des Voyages, t. II. p. 381. Adrien Dupré, sur le Montenegro, ibid. t. XV. p. 119.

[r] Notice sur le Montenegro, dans les Annales des Voyages t. IV. p. 220. Viala, Voyage dans le Montenegro.

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The people are Slavonians by birth, they speak a Servian dialect, and form, to the great regret of the patriarch of Constantinople, a part of the Servian and Russian church. Their mountains are fertile in pasture, and in many places covered with flocks which are exported into neighbouring countries; the plains do not yield much corn, but a great quantity of wine. The allied districts on the north of the lake Scutari are more fruitful, the mountains are better wooded, and the rivers better stored with fish; the inhabitants are not so dispersed as the Montenegrines; the former live near one another, the others reside on their farms or domains. The free country which we have described is of small extent, but it and Servia may perhaps accelerate the dissolution of the Ottoman empire in the west.

Dalmatia or Herzgovina.

Some remarks have been already made on the physical geography of Dalmatia, which is divided into two parts; the inland is possessed by the Ottomans, the maritime by the Austrians; an account of the one shall be given in our description of Hungary; the other or the Turkish territory has successively been called the kingdom of Roma and the duchy of St. Saba, hence the terms *hertzegovina*, a duchy, and *hersek*, a duke have been introduced into geography. The north-east extremity, where the Moraca waters its solitary valley, is inaccessible to travellers; but Tribunia is built in a calcareous and fertile country that is better known; its population amounts to 9000 souls; the most of the inhabitants were at one time Serbes, they have since become Mahometans; so great is their fanaticism, that the Catholic bishop of the city is compelled to reside at Ragusa.

Towns and fortresses.

Rivers without embouchures.

There are no outlets for the rivers in the districts of Trebigny and Popovo, the latter is fertile in oil, corn and wine. The Trebinitza, after having received the waters of the Kliutch, throws itself into the river of Popovo, or, as appears to us more likely, it is then known by that name, and directs its course towards Narenta; obstructed by the mountains, it loses itself in a small lake or gulf; that supposition, however, is at variance with the opinions of the Ragusans,

who maintain that the Ombla forms a subterranean passage for the lake of Popovo.[s] The whole of the water is not discharged into the gulf, the fields in the neighbourhood are inundated during the winter season;[t] a pestilential vapour rises from the marshes on the upper banks of the Narenta; and at no great distance from them is situated the flourishing but ill-fortified town of Mostar; which is peopled by 12,000 inhabitants; its trade consists in arms, the swords of Mostar are not inferior to those of Damascus. The place has derived its name from a stone bridge of a single arch fifty yards in width, it was built on the river according to the plan of a joiner, a native of the town, after the Turkish architects had given it up in despair.[u] The country in the vicinity of Mostar is covered with orchards, olive trees and vineyards. The town of Livno or Hliuno is situated in the high districts, it is surrounded by a rampart and a ditch, defended by three castles, and commands the most important entrance into Bosnia; *kullas* or forts are built at regular distances along the roads, which are very bad,[x] independently of their natural disadvantages, they are in many places strewed with trees or obstructed by mounds; carabines are fired on every side at the approach of strangers, a sort of salutation with which they would willingly dispense; the Turco-Bosman garrisons are the most barbarous troops in the pay of the Sultan.

Bosnia and Turkish Croatia.

Bosnia is watered by a great many rivers; the most of them flow towards the Save, and divide the country into a number of narrow vallies; the land, although not much assisted by art, for the inhabitants are indolent and barbarous, produces abundant crops; the most fertile districts are

[s] The Ombla, the rival of the Timavus, is called the Arion by Pouqueville, but the Arion was probably confounded with another river by the copyist of Scylax.

[t] Busching, t. II. p. 734.

[u] Hadgi-Khalfa, Roumili, p. 176. *Most* is a Slavonic word, which signifies a bridge.

[x] Riedl's map.

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those on the banks of the Drinna, the Verbagna and Korovitza; the soil in Bosnia Proper, Croatia and Rascia is almost everywhere of a fine quality; the vallies and the sides of the hills are covered with a thick layer of vegetable mould, the land is lighter on the summits but not unfruitful.[y] Such are the remarks of a French traveller, but they have been modified by a German author who frequently visited the country, and concluded from his observations that the greater part of the land in Bosnia is better adapted for the rearing of cattle than the culture of corn.

Vegetable productions.

Thyme, rosemary and other aromatic plants cover the rocky summits of the mountains; cherries, plums, pears, quinces, nuts and walnuts grow in the northern part of the country; apricots, peaches, figs and almonds are the productions of the southern districts. The trees, though seldom cut, and never grafted, produce fruit of a good quality; the pears and apples in particular are remarkable for their size and agreeable taste. The grape seldom arrives at maturity in the mountainous districts, but it ripens in the country on the banks of the Drinna. *Slivovitza* or a strong drink made of plums, is taken by Christians and Turks as a substitute for wine; and all the lands in the neighbourhood of the villages are planted with plum trees. Pekmes, a sweet juice of the consistence of honey, is extracted from pears.

The vegetables cultivated in the gardens are cucumbers, gourds, red and white beetrave, beans, onions and melongena; cabbage is the chief article of food during winter; it is kept in casks in a state of fermentation. The different kinds of corn are wheat, maize and barley, the quantity produced exceeds greatly what is necessary for the consumption of the people, and the surplus, of which the value amounts nearly to L.20,000, is sold in Dalmatia and the Austrian states.[z] Oats are cultivated in few places throughout Bosnia, but millet is a very common crop; bread is made of it, and the inhabitants declare that it may

Corn.

[y] Chaumette Desfossés, la Bosnie, p. 10. [z] Desfossés, p. 128.

be kept longer than any other grain; it is said in support of their opinion that during a great famine which happened in the year 1791, the vizier commanded the officers in the fortresses to distribute among the people, the provisions set apart for the garrisons; a granary full of millet was discovered in the strong hold of Banialouka, and, although it had been there forty-two years, it still retained its freshness and nutritive qualities.

Forests.

Bosnia is, in proportion to its size, more populous than the other provinces in European Turkey, but it might, if its cultivation were extended, support three or four times the number of its present inhabitants, the richest vallies or hills are only cultivated, the rest of the country is covered with lofty forests. The oak, the ash, the poplar, the maple, the hornbeam, the aspen and the birch grow on the sides of the mountains; the summits are crowned with larches, firs and yews. A great navy might be built of the timber in the forests; the late emperor of the French was aware of the advantages that might be derived from them; by his directions, tools were forged in the country, and workmen were employed in cutting a road by which the French legions might penetrate into Illyria, and the Bosnian oaks be transported to the harbours on the Adriatic.

Animals.

The rich meadows and pastures are grazed by numerous herds of oxen; though not so large or so well shaped as those in Hungary, they are probably of the same race. Wool forms an important article of exportation, the Bosnians are not indifferent about the breed of their sheep, which appear to be the same as the Hungarian.

Teal and wild ducks frequent the lakes and the banks of rivers; the most common fresh water fish are trouts, pikes, carps and eels.

The beaver is sometimes seen in the islands on the Save, and all the rivers are well stored with crayfish. The adder is perhaps the only noxious reptile in the country.

Mines and minerals.

If Bosnia were well governed, its mines might become a source of wealth; it was probably at Slatnitza, a place on

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the road to Scopia, and six miles from Traunick, that the Romans worked their famous gold mines; the excavations still remain; but so great is the superstition of the inhabitants that they never approach them. There are, according to a tradition which in all probability is correct, gold mines on several mountains near Zvornick and Varech, particles of native gold are rolled down the Bosna, the Verbatch, the Drina and the Latchva; but the Turks seldom suffer any to be collected; it is alleged as the motive of their conduct, that they do not wish to excite the avidity of the Christians. Many silver mines were worked in the time of the catholic kings before the arrival of the Turks, but all of them have been long since neglected. The richest are situated in the neighbourhood of Rama or Prezos, Foinitca and other towns or villages, which on account of their productions are called *Sreberno*, *Srebernik* and *Srebernitza*. An ore containing quicksilver is found near the convent of Kressevo; but the iron mines are the most valuable of any in Bosnia, they have contributed most to the resources of the country, they are the principal channel to which national industry is directed; two thousand men, a third part of whom are Christians, are constantly employed in these mines, which contain besides iron, arsenic and orpiment. A lead mine was discovered near Olovo between Kladain and Varech.

Salt.

Although salt is imported into Bosnia, it may be obtained in several districts; there are at least seventy or eighty salt pits in the valley at Touzla-Velika, their diameter for the most part is about six feet, and water is generally found at the depth of four or five. The water is boiled in large caldrons until it passes off in vapour, and the sediment left is white salt of the best kind, a small quantity only is collected, and from its high price the use of it is exclusively confined to the rich; forty or fifty pits of the same sort have been dug in another valley about eight miles from the former; the mines of rocksalt in the neighbourhood of Tartchin might be profitably worked, but no labour has as yet been bestowed on them.

Climate.

The climate of Bosnia is variable and modified by the difference in the height of different districts; the winters are mild on the fruitful plains near the banks of the Drina; the cold is severe in Croatia and the mountainous country; the land in that part of Bosnia is during six months in the year covered with snow to the depth of several feet; the centigrade thermometer has been frequently observed between twelve and eighteen degrees below zero.[a] The heat of summer is seldom oppressive, but in that season the northern districts are warmer than the southern. The forests on the mountains collect the clouds, and the weather is often tempestuous between the beginning of June and the 15th of August, but the great rains during these months fertilize the ground; the spring begins in the high country about the end of April and continues till June, the heat of summer then commences and lasts to the beginning of September; snow falls generally before the end of the same month, and is not entirely dissolved until the middle of May. Bosnia is on the whole a very healthy country, it is well supplied with water, the air is salubrious, and the marshes are almost exclusively confined to the banks of the Save.

Springs and rivers.

Many streams rise from the mountains, the stranger cannot travel half a league in any direction without crossing a rivulet; they are seen on the hills at every hundred yards. This extreme profusion of nature is attended with inconvenience, the roads are in many places impassable in the middle of summer; the Turks, it is true, never attempt to change the direction of the currents. The Drina or the eastern boundary of the province, the Bosna, which waters the central districts and gives its name to the country, and the Verbaz on the east, are navigable for boats of fifty tons burden; the Unna, which is to a considerable distance the boundary between Austrian and Turco-Bosnian Croatia, cannot be navigated on account of its nume-

[a] Desfossés, p. 15. Pouqueville, ii. 465, 472.

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rous shallows; all these rivers discharge themselves into the Save.

Principal towns.

Travellers have enumerated, in addition to the principal towns in Bosnia, twenty-four fortresses and nineteen forts or castles, which were built in the middle ages.[b] *Serajevo* or *Bosna-Serai* is the capital of the country; its inhabitants are almost independent, at all events the *Beylerbey* or vizier of the province is only allowed to reside amongst them three days in the year; the houses are adorned with gardens, on all sides are minarets, bastions and turrets; the whole is surrounded by well-wooded hills watered by the *Miliaska* and other feeders of the Bosna; the population is not less than 60,000 souls, and a third part of the inhabitants follow the rites of the Greek church. The forts in the high town or *Grad* are each flanked by four small turrets, and the walls, it is said, are twelve feet thick. It may be concluded, from the extensive trade in arms and jewellery, and from the numerous caravans which pass to Constantinople, that the inhabitants are as industrious as any in the Turkish dominions. Trawnick lies to the west of the capital on the Laschwa, a feeder of the Bosna; its citadel, which according to M. Desfossés is of little importance, and according to M. Petuisier, almost impregnable, is the residence of the vizier-pacha or governor of the province, on whom the Porte confers the vain title of vizier of Hungary; his revenue, owing to his exorbitant exactions, amounts sometimes to L.100,000; all the offices enjoyed by the ancient courtiers exist still in the court of the vizier, and under him are two pachas *in partibus infidelium*, the one of Knin, the other of Clissa in Dalmatia; but the guardian in the west of the empire is changed every three years, and is often, before that period expires, deprived of his dignities at the request of the Bosnians. The towns of *Vrandouk* and *Maglay* on the Bosna are remarkable for their strong citadels. *Jaicza*,[c] once a famous city on the basin of the Verbaz, and the ancient abode of the

Residence of the Pacha.

[b] Stœver, Archives d'Ethnographie, t. I. p. 120.

[c] The naval city, literally the city of the egg.

Bosnian kings, has fallen into decay. Banialaka, a large and commercial town, is situated below it at the confluence of the Bania; the houses, including those in the citadel, are not fewer than 4200; the garrison is composed of 6000 men, the place is defended by three strong redoubts; the number of Christian families is about 1800.

Bihacz, *Novi*, and *Dubieza*, three small fortresses on the Unna, resisted in 1789 the united efforts of an Austrian army; and Berbir or the Turkish Gradisca on the Save, one of the strongest places in the country, was fortified in 1774 by French engineers. The population of Zwornick, a town on the basin of the Drina, amounted at one time to 14000 souls, at present it is less than 6000; the place consists of a low and high town or *grad*; although the walls and old towers are all that remain of the latter, the Servians were unable to take it; Vischegrad lies beyond it, there too the Servian invaders have been more than once repulsed.

Bosnia is admirably defended by nature; it could only be conquered in the way attempted by Prince Eugene in 1697, or in other words, by bringing a powerful army from the Save on Bosna-Serai, but it might be necessary at the same time to occupy Herzgovina, a district of which the positions are imperfectly known. It appears from the memoir of an Austrian officer,[d] that the roads in the country are bad; cannon or artillery could only be transported on few of them; and the Turks, in the event of an invasion, might convey the greater part of the provisions in Bosnia into their strong-holds; the vizier could easily raise 80,000 troops, thirty thousand of them might be sufficient for the defence of the forts, and the remaining fifty thousand might be employed in the campaign. The Bosnian army was composed of *Janizaries*, *Seimens*, *Serdentjeztis*, *Spahis* and *Nephers*. The names of the Janizaries inscribed in the different lists amounted to 78,000; all of them were armed burgesses, and not

[d] Posselt, Annales politiques.

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more than sixteen thousand received pay. The Seimens are light armed infantry, equipped and maintained at the expense of government. The Serdentjeztis are troops hastily levied and ill disciplined; they maintain themselves by plundering the countries in which they make war. The Spahis in Bosnia and in the other Turkish dominions are horsemen, each of whom possesses a fief. The Nephers are light cavalry, chiefly employed in devastating the districts through which they pass. The great difficulty in the conquest of Bosnia must be attributed to its numerous passes and thick woods, its castles, *kullas* or forts, and also to the known courage of the Bosnians when they combat in their own land, and to the necessity of protecting an immense frontier against the incursions and attacks of light-armed troops.

Language, manners.

The crescent need not fear a Bosnian invasion, but it is menaced by dangers of a different kind; the most of the people are devoted to the Mussulman worship, but they differ wholly from the Turks in their manners, habits and interests. Bosnia is a feudal nation, which from contingent events has become tributary to the Ottoman empire. The thirty-six hereditary captains and the *ayans* or deputies of the people in the towns, exercise a power founded on custom and opinion, but which is amply sufficient to balance the power of the vizier, pachas and *ridjals* or governors appointed by the Porte; the whole province is more independent of Turkey than Hungary is of Austria. If the people complain against their rulers, the pachas are deprived of their dignities; and the application of the revenue to the military defence of the country is one advantage which the Bosnians derived from their fidelity during the insurrection in Servia. The Bosnian language, a dialect of the Servian, is generally spoken; the Turks seldom think of acquiring it, and are considered strangers.

Condition of the women.

Polygamy is almost unknown in Bosnia, both sexes enjoy the privilege of choosing their companions for life; an unmarried woman appears without a veil, respect is shown to the mother of a family, and all these customs distin-

guish the people from the inhabitants of eastern countries. The Bosnians are said to be *infidels* by the Mussulmans of Constantinople; they are descended from the warriors of a northern race, and are not as yet sullied by effeminate vices, by venality or corruption; their barbarism must be imputed to an intellectual separation from the rest of Europe; if they were enlightened, if the Christian religion were preached in its gospel purity amongst them, they might soon become an independent nation.

Religion.

It is unfair to blame the inhabitants of the province for their attachment to Mahometanism; their Christian neighbours are the members of a corrupt church, those of the Greek persuasion on the Drina and the Save, those of the Catholic on the Verbaz from Jaicza to Banialouka, and on the frontier of Herzgovina, are infected with the superstition, ignorance and prevailing errors of the middle ages; their ancestors adopted the declared heresy of the *Paternians;* their present descendants, the slaves of a degenerate priesthood, excite the contempt of the Mahometan Bosnians. The position of the Catholic villages marks the unfortunate division in the ancient kingdom between the eastern and western churches; the one was supported by the Croatian spear, the other by the Servian sword. It may be doubted if the Turks with all their barbarity could unite them; the priests thunder in the present day their anathemas against each other.

Other districts.

The part of Bosnia which has been mentioned is well known; the other districts beyond the Drina are seldom visited, but some valuable information has been lately obtained from the itineraries of French travellers. Podrinna and the government of Obrach are situated in that quarter of the province; these districts are either incorrectly marked or omitted in the maps published at a later period than those of Coronelli. The Drina, the White Drina, and the Zem rise probably at no great distance from one another in the Chemerno mountains, which must not be confounded with the range of the same name in Servia.

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The town of Fotschia lies in the same part of the country; Hadgi-Khalfah makes its population amount to 10,000 souls, and considers it an appendage of Herzgovina; Buschiang believes that it is governed by the Sangiac of Obrach; some of the different writers who mention it, place it on the White Drina, others on the Moraca, and others on the Zem; lastly, in the same district is situated the church attached to the convent of Miloseva, and in it are deposited the ashes of Saint Saba, the first bishop of Servia; hence the name of St. Saba which is applied to the whole of Herzgovina.

Rascia.

We follow in countries imperfectly known, the itinerary of M. Pouqueville from Bosnia to Macedonia, and arrive at Novi-Bazar or, according to its Turkish name, Jeni-Bazar, a populous town, of which the Sangiac is governor of Rascia, a dependence of Bosnia, but very different from that province in its climate and productions; although its elevation above the level of the sea is considerable, it yields strong wine; the ox is not seen, but the buffalo is common. It is not as yet determined whether these changes are occasioned by more southern latitudes or by an extensive opening in the mountainous chains. The inhabitants are of Servian origin, the greater number are members of the Greek church. The neighbourhood of Novi-Bazar is visited on account of its thermal springs, which are of the same kind as those scattered throughout the range of Hemus and Scardus.

Servia.

It is probable, from the accounts which different authors have given of Servia, that it resembles Bosnia; but the hills on the south are bounded by open and more temperate plains. The mountains in the middle of the province, *Czemerno*, *Scheliana*, and *Kopauneg* form apparently a very elevated group. Two large plains meet near Kruschevacz, the one extending in an easterly direction from Nissa, the other westwards from Ussitza; they are situated to the north of the range or boundary of the mountainous districts in Upper Servia; the first is watered by the eastern Morava, which flows from the base of Mount

Mountains and rivers.

Scomius, and winds round a country little known and the lofty ridge in the south. The western Morava passes through the other valley, but that river is not so great as the eastern, and it receives its principal streams from the Ibar, which descends from the same ridge or rather from the plain of Cossova. The two Moravas after their union turn to the north and traverse the chain of Kaplan in Lower Servia, at its base is situated the ancient bannat of Mazovia.

Part of the chain which stretches across all the country to the south-west of the Timok, derives its name from the Hayduks or banditti, who perhaps still inhabit its arid summits and numerous caverns; the same mountains confine the channel of the Danube. The silver mines near Nova-Berda, and the iron mines near Saphina are better known; but gold mines were worked in that part of the country by the Romans, and travellers assure us that it abounds in salt. The vast forests are chiefly composed of pines and oaks, the wild beasts that frequent them are the bear, the lynx and the wolf; the natives hunt the chamois or the *gaiza* on the high mountains. Vineyards descend from the woods, they were first planted by the Emperor Probus, the wine produced from them is superior in strength and flavour to any in Wallachia.[e] The inhabitants are wretched agriculturists, but wheat, maize and millet amply repay the labours of the husbandman. Tobacco, lint and hemp are exported every year; the fruits of the south are rarely seen, but whole districts are covered with apple, pear and cherry trees. The Servians are a strong and active race of men; in their national songs are recorded their victories over the Mussulmans, the miracles of St. Saba and St. Andrew, the adventures of Prince Mark, and many Bosnian, Servian and Albanian traditions;[f] their dialect is perhaps the purest and most har-

Produc-tions.

Inhabitants.

[e] Kamensky, Putetchestwie w' Moldai i Serbii. Moskwa, 1810. Eutrop. Brev. IX. II.

[f] Narodnesrpske Piesme, collected by W. Stephanowitch Karadgitch. Lipitski, 1824, 3 vol.

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monious of any connected with the Slavonic. The people are of the Greek church, they acknowledge, as their spiritual head, a dignitary, who is supposed to reside at Pech or Pekia in an unknown district of Upper Albania;[g] but we are informed by the best authorities, that the individual is the archbishop of Semendria and primate of Servia.

Rights.

More civilized and industrious than the Bosnians, the Servians are not less renowned for their courage; they have recently obtained under the command of Czermi-George, important privileges which are now confirmed in a treaty guaranteed by Russia. The Turks, who are not connected with government, are rarely permitted to settle in the country, the fortresses only are defended by Ottoman garrisons; in short, the Servians, though tributary to the Mussulmans, are governed by their own laws; they as well as the Bosnians and Albanians might easily free themselves from the yoke of a feeble empire. The Servians may be considered a simple, not a barbarous people; the most of them can write, their language is nearly the same as the Russian, and many young men are sent to study in the Russian universities. The Servian senate regulates the administration of justice, presides over the police, and extends its jurisdiction in the ecclesiastical courts. The nation pays a fixed tribute, and furnishes in the event of war, a force of 12,000 men to the Porte.

Towns of lower Servia.

Belgrade[h] is famous in the annals of war, taken and retaken by the Austrians and the Turks, the crescent still floats on its ramparts, but it ought to have remained in the possession of the brave Servians, who took it during an insurrection. The fortress commands from the summit of a rock the *town of water* which is encompassed with walls and extends along the Danube, the *town of the Raitzes* or Servians on the Save, and a great part of the suburbs; the whole is peopled by 30,000 inhabitants, and amongst them are nearly as many Armenians as Jews, who are attracted to the place by the expectation of gain; it is

[g] Dupré Annal. des Voyages, XV. 93.

[h] Biyogrod in Servian; Nandos-feyer-var in Hungarian.

the principal mart between Germany and Hungary on one side, and Constantinople and Salonica on the other. Semendriya or as it is vulgarly called, Smedreno, but more correctly Sent-Andriya or *St. Andrews*, is the capital of Servia; its population does not exceed 10 or 12,000 souls. Sabacz and Hassan-Palanka are two Turkish fortresses situated on an island in the Danube near the north-east extremity of the province. The same river, a short way above the important fortress of Orsova, flows between steep rocks, and its waters rush in foaming eddies near the pass of Demir-Kapi; at no great distance below it, the remains of columns and arches, which are still seen on the banks of the Danube, mark the site of Trajan's famous bridge; Hadrian envious of his great predecessor, is accused by historians of having destroyed the work, but it is doubtful if it was ever finished in the way it is represented on Trajan's pillar.[i] A traveller has discovered many remarkable ruins on Mount Haloga or Havalla, about two German or nearly seven English miles to the south of Belgrade; the ruins, it is supposed, are the remains of a Gothic town, the name of the place renders that opinion probable, but it requires to be confirmed by additional evidence.

Monuments.

The towns towards the interior are *Kruchevacz* or the Turkish *Aladja-Hissar*, it is the most central city in the province, its fine castle was formerly the residence of the Servian kings; Ussitza lies to the west of the last town, it is a place of some trade, and contains about 6000 inhabitants; the vast orchards in the vicinity are productive, and the Turkish geographer considers the position of the town not unlike that of Mecca;[k] to the east is situated the fortress of Nissa, the birth-place of Constantine the Great; it was embellished and adorned by that emperor, but no trace of its magnificence is left; its low houses or cottages are built of clay and covered with shingles. The towns on the higher banks of the eastern Morava and its feeders

Towns in the interior.

[i] Mannert, Expédition de Trajan, Annal. des Voyages, XXI.

[k] Hadgi-Khalfa, p. 155.

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are little known, the trade of Orkup or the ancient Precopia is not wholly destroyed, the site of Kratowo, the ancient burying place of the Servian kings, cannot be determined, its name ought probably to be written Kralowa, or the royal city. Nova-Berda is built near valuable mines, but the neighbouring country is the retreat of bandits. M. Pouqueville, on his return from Novi-Bazar, passed through the southern extremities of the province; he found the country in a state of complete anarchy, the roads were infested with robbers, fires blazed from the forests; the same traveller was not permitted to remain long at Pristina or Guistendel, the supposed birth-place of Justinian. He visited not without danger the famous plain known by the different names of Merles, Cossovo-Poli and Rigomezo, where in the year 1389, the sultan Amurath I. was slain by a Bosnian noble in an obstinate battle against the united armies of Servia, Bosnia and Bulgaria. A mausoleum was erected by the victorious soldiers in memory of their king; lamps are continually burned in it, they are guarded by a number of dervises. The Bosnian was put to death, a stone has been placed over his grave, which is still revered by his countrymen. Fifty years afterwards, Amurath II. routed in the same place a Hungarian army; the fate of empires may be again decided on these memorable plains.

Tomb of Amurath I.

Proto-Slavonians.

It has often been a matter of wonder how the Slavonians worn out by so many destructive wars, could have peopled all Illyria with their numerous hordes; the Servians and Bosnians, it is thought, found and mingled with an ancient nation of the same origin as themselves on their arrival in the country during the sixth century. Dolce maintains boldly that Illyria was the native country of the people whose colonists now occupy the whole of Poland and Russia; his arguments were too hastily rejected by the celebrated Adelung.[1] The Albanians are the descendants of the Illyrians, other nations existed perhaps in the

[1] Mithridates, t. II. p. 633.

earliest historical age near the Thracians and Illyrians, their names indicate some sort of connexion between them and the Slavonic tribes, they may therefore be denominated the Proto-Slavonians.

Proto-Slavonian tribe in Thrace.

The Henetes are supposed to be homonymous with the Venetes, they have been mentioned since the dawn of history, but the information obtained in later times is imperfect and doubtful. No conclusion can be formed from the names of Slavonic origin in Paphlagonia, the age in which they were introduced is unknown; but the history of the Thracians may guide us in the inquiry, their country was undoubtedly the abode of a numerous race, that spoke a different language from the Phrygians, Hellenes and Illyrians, but they were connected with all these nations. It has been supposed that the Thracians were Medes, because their country has been called Zend, that they were Celts, because *bria* means a town and sometimes a bridge, that they were Germans, because *perga* signifies a mountainous tract. Vague hypotheses have been raised on these absurd data; a faint resemblance may be traced not only between the Thracians, but every ancient people and different nations; it appears however from various indications that the Slavonians were related to many tribes in Thrace, to the *Trausi* on the Travus,[m] their neighbours the Cicones,[n] the Krobizi on Mount Hemus,[o] the Bessi on Orbelus and at a later period in Bessarabia,[p] the Dolonces in the vallies of Rhodope,[q] and many others. It may be added that the Strymon has always retained a Slavonic name,[r] many other terms of the same kind might be discovered in the maps of ancient and classical

[m] From *trava*, pasture or grass, hence *trawnik* in Bosnia, and *trave* in Wagria.

[n] Cicones, the tranquil or peaceful, from Cicouchny.

[o] From Krowizy a neat-herd.

[p] *Bies*, a devil or wicked man, *Biczen* to run. The Biessi in Sarmatia and in the Biecziad mountains.

[q] *Dolina*, a valley.

[r] In Polish, Strzuemin or Strumien; in Bulgarian struma.

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Proto-Slavonians in Pannonia.

Greece.[s] The lake of Cirknitz was called Lugeus at the time it is first mentioned in history; now that word is the same as the *Luka* or *Lug* in the Slavonic dialects; the country near its banks is peopled by the Carni, whose Slavo-Roman name has existed for ages; the same remark may be applied to the Save, the Drave, the Kulpa and the Piave, mounts *Ocra*, *Karouankes* and several towns. The Panonii were, as their name indicates, the lords[t] or powerful men of Croatia and Slavonia, who drank strong beer;[u] the Mazovias on the Vistula and the Danube have been called from the Mazœi or one of their tribes. It is probable from so many Slavonic terms in the countries to the north of the gulf of Venice, that the Veneti were originally a Slavonian tribe; if that opinion be adopted, it may enable us to account for their commercial relations with the Venedi and Æsty, or *sellers of amber*. It is difficult to suppose how they could have so easily crossed the continent, had they not found a number of tribes of the same origin, and who spoke the same language as themselves.

We do not mean to affirm that the Proto-Slavonians scattered in Thrace, Illyria and Pannonia, were not distinguished by their manners, customs and language from the Venedi, Lygii, Vindili, Karpi and other northern Slavonic states. They might have differed from them as much as the Pelasghi differed from the Hellenes, the Etruscans from the Latins, and the Romans in the time of Romulus from those in the age of Augustus; they might have lived among the Thracian nations, or mixed with the Illyrian Romans, or been oppressed by the powerful Celtic hordes; but the existence of the Proto-Slavonians both in the countries watered by the Save and the Drave, and in those near the Strymon and the Hebrus, is a fact of which history affords abundant evidence.

[s] Volustana in Thessaly; the lake Nizeros in Acarnania, &c.

[t] Pan, a Lord; panowy, that which belongs to a Lord.

[u] Sabayam from Zapiam, a Slavonic word, See Hieron. Comment. in Isai, c. xix. Amm. Marcell. xxvi. 8.

The *Hyperboreans* who remained faithful to the Pelasgic and Hellenic worship, formed probably part of those tribes; from their country several Greek divinities, among others *Opora*, found their way into the Olympus of the Wends; they adored Iacchus or Bacchus under the title of *Iako-Bog* or God of the dead;[x] the same divinity was known to the ancient Italians by the name of Vragus.[y] The resemblance in the manners, customs and mythology of the Italian and Hellenic states on the one side, and the Slavonic and Illyrian on the other might, if carefully examined, throw additional light on the primitive history of Europe; but little valuable information could be gained on that important branch of comparative geography without much labour, patience and research. Religious customs.

The Roman emperors induced the *Slavines* or *Slaves* to repeople Illyria during the incursions of the conquering Goths and devastating Huns; the Byzantine historians recorded their names and exploits. The *Serbi* or *Serbli* migrated from the Great or White Servia, one or other, but which of the two it is difficult to determine;[z] the country is supposed to be the present Galicia. The people were divided into the Red and White *Serbi*, they remained for some time in Macedonia, where the town of Servitza is still a monument of their invasion, and settled afterwards on the banks of the Morava and the Drina. Some of them however did not remove from Macedonia, and their flourishing, rich and warlike state braved all the power of Byzantium. One of their colonies advanced into the Peloponnesus, and was in time confounded with the ancient inhabitants. The Red Servians not only occupied the whole of Servia, of which a part was called Rascia, but founded in Dalmatia the duchy or *zupania* of Zachlomia, the petty states of Terbun and Narenta, and the town Arrival of the Slavonians. Invasions of the Serbi.

[x] See Dolci, de Linguæ Illyricæ vetustate et amplitudine.

[y] Festus, p. 143. "Orcum quem dicimus, ait Verrius, ab antiquis dictum Vragum." *Vrag*, a demon in Slavo-Illyrian; *wrog*, idem in Polish; *vraam*, to kill in Albanian.

[z] Beli is pronounced veli by the Byzantines, it may signify *bieli*, white, or *weli* great.

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of Dioclea, the birth place of the emperor Diocletian, who adorned it with temples and palaces, which have been since overwhelmed in the marshy waters of the lake *Lignester*. The White Servians possessed the whole of Bosnia to the banks of the Verbaz, and divided it into small principalities and republics, that were oppressed at different periods by the Bulgarian and Hungarian kings. Bosnia from being a Servian Zupania became a Hungarian province; and the bannat of Mazovia was formed in the north of Servia by the monarchs of Hungary. While the Servians were scattered in the interior of Illyria, a number of Polish-Slavonians migrated from the Great *Chrobatia* on the Carpathian mountains, and placed themselves at the head of the ancient population of Pannonia; strengthened by the assistance of the inhabitants, they conquered the western part of Dalmatia and the countries to the west of the Verbaz. The Croatians or *Horwaths* were of a different tribe, and spoke a different language, they embraced the Latin, the Servians adhered to the Greek church. The Croatians, from their connexion with the west, retained all the chivalry and barbarism in the feudal laws and customs; the Servians on the Haliacmon and the Danube were like the Russians, brave and industrious; both were addicted to similar superstitions, which they did not wholly lay aside after their admission of Christianity; like brothers born in different climates, they met in the ancient and long-forgotten countries of their forefathers.

Croatian invasions.

Thus two distinct invasions, the one of the western, the other of the eastern Slavonians, were made by the children of the Proto-Slavonic tribes. The descendants of these invaders, are the Slavo-Illyrians or the Slavonic nations on the south of the Danube; their population in the Austrian, Hungarian and Ottoman territories, amounts to nearly 4,000,000 of strong, active and brave men, naturally intelligent, and well fitted to make progress in the arts of peace and war. Is the example of Stephen Duscian likely to be followed, who, with such men, proclaimed himself emperor of the Romans, and marched against Constantinople at the head of 80,000 warriors?

Conclusion.

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EUROPE.

European Turkey. North-east Provinces. Wallachians. Zigeunes or Gypsies.

THE savage nations on the banks of the Ohio chose a vast plain for their field of battle, its trees were levelled with the ground; he who tilled it was punished with death; it was stained with the blood of contending tribes; but in the revolution of ages its destiny has been changed, the savages were conquered by a new race, and a thousand flourishing villages are now scattered throughout the fertile Kentucky and the *field of death*. The countries on the banks of the majestic Danube near its entrance into the Black Sea, might for many ages have been compared to Kentucky; the flowery plains and woody hills of Moldavia, Wallachia and Bulgaria have for time immemorial been a high road and field of battle for all the barbarians who migrated from Asia into Europe. The light Sarmatian horsemen fought against the heavy Roman legions, and the Hun, more brutal than the Sarmatian, pursued the scattered Goths. Many other people established an ephemeral empire; the Bulgarians only retained their possessions, but at the price of their liberty; the Osmanli Turks displayed their victorious banners, the white Polish eagle fled before them, but for the last half century, the victors have been threatened by Russia.

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The Wallachians, the Moldavians and Bulgarians, the subjects or rather the slaves of so many masters still inhabit these countries, and drag out a precarious and wretched existence.

The Bulgarians, their origin and migrations.

The Bulgarians or *Voulgarians* are an ancient Turkish or Tartar nation, which in the fourth century was settled on the Wolga; the ruins of their former capital may still be seen in the neighbourhood of Casan. They removed afterwards to the countries between the Don and the Bog, and called their new territories the Second Bulgaria. They passed the Danube in 539, made themselves masters of the coasts on the Black Sea as far as Mount Hemus, subdued seven Slavonic tribes in 678, and formed the kingdom of Black Bulgaria, the capital of which was Presthlaba or Perejaslaw. The Slavonians that submitted to them were those of *Severia* on the Sem and the Desna. More numerous than their masters, their language in time prevailed, it was, as the name of the capital indicates,[a] connected with the dialects spoken by the *Antes* or Russians, The Bulgarians penetrated into Thrace, Macedonia and Thessaly; one of their hordes settled in the duchy of Benevento, and a fugitive band of the same people were destroyed in Carinthia. Their wars with the Greek empire were very sanguinary, whole provinces were changed into deserts or, as they were then called, *Bulgarian forests*; it is true their example was imitated by the Greeks, who in one day put out the eyes of fifteen thousand Bulgarian prisoners. The kingdom or empire of the Bulgarians which extended its sway in 1010, over Macedonia, Albania and Servia, was destroyed by the emperor Basil the II., and the dispersed tribes found refuge in Turkey in 1185. The Wallachians or rather Kutzo-Wallachians on the south of the Danube, and the Bulgarians who remained in Black Bulgaria, planned a revolt and founded the Wallachian and Bulga-

[a] The Bulgarian town was probably called from Perejaslaw in the government of Pultawa.

rian kingdom, which became sometimes the ally and at other times the vassal of the Byzantine empire; it was finally conquered by the Ottomans about the middle of the fourteenth century.

The Bulgarians, accustomed to the labours and occupations of a country life, are now an industrious, quiet and hospitable people; the greater number are members of the Greek church and under the superintendence of different patriarchs. Their Slavonic dialect differs little from the Servian, but several Tartar words have been introduced by such of them as still adhere to Mahometanism.[b] Bulgaria is a country highly favoured by nature; the cold is sometimes as severe as in Servia, but it is sheltered on the north by its heights, and the common temperature is sufficiently mild to ensure the cultivation of the vine, corn, tobacco and various fruits. The banks of the Danube on the Bulgarian side are not so marshy as in Wallachia, and the fertile pastures on the sides of the mountains are covered with herds of oxen and flocks of sheep. Many horses are bred in the same districts, the Tartar hordes eat the flesh of these animals. The appearance of the extensive forests is varied by different trees, the beech, the pine and the oak. A number of thermal springs flow from the heights, those on mount Suha are sulphureous and of a red colour, a warm fountain on the frontier of Servia near the sources of the Nissava, rises in the form of a pillar about the thickness of a man's arm; a cold and crystal spring issues from the foot of the same hill, the water in both is medicinal.[c]

Productions.

Sophia or, according to its Bulgarian name, Triaditza is the chief town in the country; situated on the road between Belgrade and Constantinople, it com-

Towns and remarkable places.

[b] See the travels of Boscovich and Reimers.

[c] A fine description in Homer, may be applied to these streams.

Next by Scamander's double source they bound,
Where two fam'd fountains burst the parted ground,
This hot through scorching clefts is seen to rise,
With exhalations streaming to the skies;
That the green bank in summer's heat o'erflows,

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municates with Serres and Salonica; its trade is extensive. The river Isker winds in the valley, and one of its branches waters the numerous gardens and orchards in the town; its population has been vaguely estimated at 50,000 souls; the *Beylerbey* of Romelia generally resides at Sophia. Tirnovo, formerly the residence of the last Bulgarian kings, and at present of a metropolitan who is entitled the primate and patriarch of Bulgaria, is built on a hill and surrounded with gardens on the banks of the Iantra. *Svetiwhora* or the holy mountain rises on the south-east of the town; its forests are held sacred, and according to ancient traditions it is dangerous to cut them down, the fountains are cooled by their shade, and the flocks sheltered from the sun's heat.[d] Schumna, a Turkish and military town, is situated in the mountainous districts, it was there that the Ottoman armies against the Austrians used to meet; a magnificent tomb is erected in the same place in honour of Hassan-Pacha, whose bravery saved the tottering empire in the wars against Catherine the Second.[e] The towns on the banks of the Danube in the direction from west to east are Widin, perhaps the most important fortress in Turkey, Nicopoli, an open town with a strong castle, Silistria, a commercial and a walled city, Ruscek or Rusczuk, which is well fortified and peopled by 30,000 inhabitants, many of them are employed in manufacturing wool, muslin, and in dressing Morocco leather.

Dobrudscha.

The country that extends from Schumna and Silistria, between the Danube and the Black Sea, is called *Dobrudscha*; it is covered with many hills, and intersected by the lake Ramsin and some others: it is ill wooded, but

Like crystal clear, and cold as winter snows.
Each gushing fount a marble cistern fills,
Whose polish'd bed receives the falling rills;
Where Trojan dames (ere yet alarmed by Greece,)
Washed their fair garments in the days of peace. Iliad, book 22d.

[d] Hadgi-Khalfa, p. 42.

[e] Hammer's Notes on the work of Hadgi-Khalfa, p. 37.

abounds in excellent pastures, and the small horses that feed on them are highly prized in Turkey; their pace is steady and uniform, and it is said that they seldom stumble. Babadaghi, the station at which the Ottoman armies met in their wars against the Russians, Varna, a port on the Black Sea, and Isakdchi on the Danube, are the places most worthy of notice in the country. Amurath the Great proved at the battle of Varna in 1444, the superiority of the Ottoman arms, and completed the conquest of European Turkey. Mr. Hammer has tried in vain to discover Tomisvar, which is supposed to be near the site of the ancient Tomi, a place rendered illustrious by the exile of Ovid. The Tartars in Dobrudscha are divided into two hordes, (the *Orak* and the *Orumbet*) they practise religiously the duties of hospitality prescribed in the Koran. If a stranger enters any of their villages, it is not uncommon for the most respectable inhabitants to dispute about the honour of receiving him, and it is customary to entertain him gratuitously during three days. The people have plenty of poultry, milk and honey.

Wallachia, origin of the Wallachians.

Wallachia is situated on the other side of the Danube; it may be shown from the language of the Getæ and Dacians, the most ancient people in these countries, that they were in all probability connected with the Slavonic tribes or the Carpi, Lygii and Venedi, who inhabited from time immemorial the Carpathian mountains and the plains on the Vistula; almost all the names in the ancient geography of Dacia end in *ava*, a Polish termination; many of them may be explained by different words in the Slavonic dialects; and as the Wallachian language is chiefly composed of Slavonic and Latin, it may be inferred from these two facts that the Wallachians are the descendants of the ancient Getæ or Dacians, who mingled with the numerous Roman colonies sent by the Emperor Trajan to the new province. The other tribes that settled in Wallachia and Moldavia left but few traces of their language and customs. Such is the conclusion at which historians have arrived; but we might enter into researches relative to the identity or dif-

BOOK C. ference between the Getæ and Dacians, their total or partial migrations, the duration of different geographical nomenclatures, the nature of the Wallachian dialects, and the local position of different tribes in the Wallachian nation. The same people exist not only in Transylvania and the north-west of Hungary, but in Pindus and Scardus, perhaps in Dalmatia, Rhodope and Hemus. It has been asked, since the people occupied so many countries, if the formation of the Daco-Latin can be attributed only to the Roman colonies. What reason can be assigned why the primitive languages of the Trikalles, the Dardani and Thracians had not, like the Albanian, some resemblance to the ancient Italic dialects, and particulary the *Romana rustica*, the source of many modern tongues? It is difficult to imagine any other way by which a Roman dialect could extend to Mesia and Dacia, or prevail among all the pastoral tribes in the central mountains of Turkey. The analogy between the Wallachian and Albanian may be accounted for by this hypothesis; but it might be necessary to compare all the Wallachian dialects with all the varieties of the Albanian, in order to determine in what the analogy consists. Other difficulties might arise from the distinction which Strabo established between the Getæ and Dacians, and from the total migration of the last people, who retreated beyond the Carpathian mountains after their war against Trajan. It is not easy to explain in the ancient Daco-Getic, the names of men, plants or Getic divinities, because such names have no connexion with the modern language; but these difficulties may perhaps be removed by the supposition, that the Getæ were not long dominant in that part of Europe, that their power was transmitted to the *Daki*, who did not make up all the population of the country. Ancient history affords us many examples of the preponderance of one tribe over a number of others sometimes very different; little attention has been paid to such examples, incorrect inferences have often been deduced from them. Who were the Getæ? it is said, Herodotus tells us they were Thracians; such at least

was the information he obtained by travelling amongst them, and by examining their country. But the Thracians, it is urged, inhabited part of Asia. Although the Asiatic languages furnished us with an explanation of the names of the divinity *Gebeleisis*, (the power that presides over high places,) and of the Getæ, (the keepers of herds and flocks,) although the five prayers and the seven choristers in the Dacian superstition may have been borrowed from similar customs among the star worshippers in the east, although *Dakia* a temple in Cappadocia was dedicated to Dagon or Jupiter; every hypothesis formed from such data must be as improbable as the one, according to which the Dai, Persians or Scythians came from the Caspian Sea to found a *Daghistan* in Europe,[f] or the other in which the original country of the Getæ is placed in the centre of China.[g] It may be proved that the modern Wallachian is formed like the French, Italian and Spanish, and is comparable in point of harmony and richness to any that are derived from the Latin.[h] The Wallachians call themselves *Roumouni* or Romans; their right to do so may have been founded on the edict of Caracalla, by which all the inhabitants in the empire could claim the title of Roman citizens; but it is certain that the Turks, Bulgarians and Albanians have applied the term *Vlach* or as it is pronounced *Velach* to their neighbours in Wallachia. Authors have wasted much time in attempting to derive that word from Asiatic languages; the Polish word *Vlach* signifies an Italian or a Roman, and is pronounced as if it

Names of the Wallachians.

[f] Strahlenberg maintains that hypothesis in his Nord und Ost-Europa, p. 328.

[g] De Guignes. Hist des Huns, t. I. Part I. p. 58, 184; Part II. p. 41, 326, 503; Part III. p. 321, 323, &c. &c.

[h] Thunmann's eastern countries of Europe. The author examines minutely the Kutzo-Wallachian dialect, which is mixed with the Albanian spoken in Thrace and Macedonia. Researches on the different Roumunian or Wallachian tribes on the south of the Danube by Constantine Roscha. Pesth, 1808. Sinkay's Daco-Roman grammar, Pesth, 1805. Vater's Collection, Leipsick, 1816. An Italian poem is translated *verbatim* into the Wallachian by M. Vater, and every word in his translation is a Latin primitive.

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were written *Volaugh*. The Lithuanian is an ancient Wendo-Slavonic dialect, the corresponding word in it is *Walakus*, and Italy is called *Walaku-ziame*. If it be remembered that *Val* in Albanian means a low country, and that the Italians are denominated *Walsches* by the Germans, it must be admitted that Wallachian is synonymous with *Roumoune* or Roman.

Numbers.

The Wallachians dispersed in Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary and Transylvania may amount to two or three millions; they were the subjects of the Bulgarian and Hungarian monarchies, and formed an independent state in 1290, not long after the death of Ladislaus. Their first king was Rodolphus the Black, one of their colonies settled in Moldavia under the government of Prince Dragosch in 1350; but although protected by Hungary and Poland, these states never rose into importance, and were compelled to submit to the Ottomans after the unfortunate battle of Mohacz in 1526. The Turks committed to them the internal government of their country, but the *hospodars* were obliged to acknowledge themselves the vassals of the Porte, to pay an annual tribute, to purchase the right of investiture, to furnish auxiliary troops and to admit Turkish garrisons into several strong holds. The geographical position of Dacia, between the Ottoman empire on one side, and Hungary, Poland and Russia on the other, has been the cause of many calamities to its inhabitants,—calamities from which other Turkish provinces have escaped. Wallachia and Moldavia have been at the commencement of every northern campaign the meeting place of the Ottoman armies; if the troops were defeated, the Christian legions entered the provinces, and the inhabitants were forced to furnish provisions for the conquerors and the conquered. The country has besides been agitated by civil wars; the boyars or Wallachian and Moldavian lords formed themselves into two parties; the timid declared in favour of their powerful masters, others more bold took the part of their secret friends, the ene-

mies of the Porte. The usual consequences of peace after such revolts were confiscation, exile, imprisonment and death. Such is in a few words the mournful history of these countries for the last two hundred years. The Wallachians and Moldavians cherished the faint hope, while any belonging to the ancient royal family remained, of obtaining a national existence, an independent and hereditary kingdom; that hope, however unlikely to be realized, consoled them in their misfortunes; but for a long time past the Porte has sent every seven years into their country and often within a shorter period, a Greek chosen from the *Drogmans*, a class of men whose character is ably and correctly drawn in the travels of Choiseul-Gouffier. Thus the degradation of the inhabitants must be attributed to the effects of an arbitrary power changing almost every year, committed to a stranger who brings along with him a retinue of other strangers or needy and abject courtiers. Dignities and offices are sold to the highest bidder; the thrones of Wallachia, Moldavia, and every other *pachalick* are publicly bought at Constantinople.

Hospodars.

The hospodars have not at their disposal the military force of the Turkish pachas, otherwise there might be little difference between them; they retain the ducal cap or coronet and the three-tailed standards; their courts are modelled after that of the Byzantine emperors.

They must recover from their oppressed subjects the purchase money of their office, pay an annual tribute to the Porte, appease by continual presents the governors of *Ibrailow* and *Giourgiew*, in order that the commanders of these fortresses may not lay waste the country; it is besides necessary to bribe the *boyars* and *drogmans* in Constantinople, otherwise they might inform against them; money must be transmitted to the members of the Divan, who, in spite of the solemn treaties with Russia, have always the power of denouncing and frequently of getting them decapitated.

The Wallachians and Moldavians are governed by a code of laws compiled from that of Justinian, and adapted

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to the habits and customs of the people; but by an absurd imitation of the Roman proconsuls and Mussulman pachas, the prince is supreme judge; any litigant may appeal to him, his decrees are irrevocable; as he does not know the laws, he is not supposed to decide according to law, but according to his conscience; the decisions of one prince are not always precedents for his successor.

Divan.

The prince disposes of the great offices in the province, the individuals hold them no longer than a year; it is on that account that they seldom take any active part in the business of the Divan or the supreme legislative and administrative assembly. The Greeks that come from Constantinople, monopolize as many places as they can; every hospodar has brothers, sisters, nephews and cousins in his retinue. These strangers, although they insist that the Wallachians are incapacitated by natural dullness or want of education from filling high political stations, do not disdain the offices of *ispraunik* or tax-gatherers, the duties of which may be performed by persons of very ordinary intelligence.

The public safety is intrusted to a body of native militia consisting of about 1200 men, and commanded by the *great spathar*, a Bizantine title that is still retained; but the soldiers are not sufficiently numerous or sufficiently warlike to ensure the public safety, a body of Albanians has lately been added to the troops.

Condition of the peasantry.

The Wallachian and Moldavian peasants are a submissive and patient race of men; without these virtues it would be almost impossible for them to exist in the midst of so many evils. They are sober, gentle and religious or superstitious; they are indolent, because they cannot call the produce of their industry their own. The milk of their cows, a small quantity of pork or bacon, millet and bad beer are sufficient to supply their wants; and if they themselves are satisfied, it is a matter of indifference whether European travellers are offended at their humble cottages and the wicker enclosures in which

their corn is kept; were they to build granaries, they must submit to additional taxation. The Wallachian peasants think it better to dance to the sound of the pipe on the banks of a calm lake, or under the shade of their woods than to labour for Turkish oppressors. Their country, they say, is a fine desert,—it would be a pity to spoil it by cultivation.

Classes.

The peasants are no longer legally the bondsmen of the boyars, Constantine Maurocordati abolished servitude in 1735, and by way of indemnity granted to every boyar a number of *socotelniki* or tributary servants, each of whom was bound to pay his lord twenty piasters every year, or to labour in his service so many days in lieu of that sum; some peasants are free, they are composed of the *poluiniki* or recent colonists that migrated from Bulgaria, Servia and some of the Austrian provinces.

Privileges. Clergy.

The lands of the boyars and the priests are according to law exempt from taxation. The clergy possess a third part of the landed property in the country, and the annual income of the metropolitan is equal to 400,000 piasters. The abbeys and dioceses are exposed to sale, and the price is put into the coffers of the hospodar, who extorts from time to time immense sums from the richest monasteries. It may be conjectured from the superstitions of the priesthood that their knowledge is very limited; it is customary to open the sepulchres every seven years, if the body has not after that period returned to its kindred dust, the being who once animated it, is in a state of condemnation, or changed into a vampyre. The relatives of the unfortunate wretch are compelled to purchase an immense number of expiatory prayers, the priests sanction the delusion, they are the only men that gain by it. The truth of the above statement is attested by several travellers, but it is difficult to reconcile such a custom with what has been said concerning the sincere virtue and great worth of the present archbishop Ignatius, the chief of the Wallachian clergy, and the founder of many schools. No middling classes exist in the country, the

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mechanical arts are almost exclusively confined to wandering troops of gypsies, the commerce of Bucharest is in the hands of the Armenians; the retail trade is engrossed by the Jews, who, although occasionally exposed to the scourges of the common people, pursue their calling with indomitable perseverance.

No germ of civilization can be discovered in these provinces, no centre from which the light of knowledge can emanate; the barbarism of the inhabitants is the consequence of corruption and effeminate indolence; it is vain to think that they could be roused by extraordinary political revolutions or by the destruction, sooner or later inevitable, of powerful neighbouring empires.

Natural advantages.

Nature seems to solicit human industry; in few countries have her blessings been so profusely lavished; the finest river in Europe waters the southern frontiers, forms an outlet not only for the produce of fruitful Hungary, but of all Austria, and opens by the Black Sea a communication between Asia and Europe; still a single vessel is a sight of rare occurrence; the mariner dreads rocks or shallows, Turkish garrisons or the plague. Other large rivers descend from the Carpathian range, and enter the Danube—the only advantage derived from them is a sufficient supply of fish during Lent; wholly neglected in every season of the year, they threaten to inundate the banks which with a moderate degree of care and labour they might enrich or fertilize. No large vessels, a few flat boats only sail on the Aluta, the Ialovitza and the Ardschis.

Productions.

Lower Wallachia is unhealthy from its extensive marshes; intermittent and bilious fevers are the common diseases of the country. The mountains and several islands on the Danube are covered with lofty forests of oak, pine and beech trees, but in place of being used in building ships, they are cut into small pieces and strewed instead of stones on the roads and streets; the people from indolence or want of skill are unable to work the immense blocks of granite and lime-stone in different parts of the Carpathian mountains. The height of Mount Butschez is

greater than 6000 feet, and all the mineral riches of Transylvania are found in Upper Wallachia; copper mines were once worked at Baya di Rama, and iron mines in the neighbourhood of *Zigarescht* in the district of Gorsy.

The small pieces of gold found by the gypsies in the Aluta and other rivers indicate the existence of gold mines as valuable as any in Transylvania; no attempt, however, has been made to discover them. The salt mines are worked, and 7500 tons are annually taken from the one at *Okna Teleuga*. The climate of Wallachia is more temperate than that of the neighbouring countries, but the inhabitants are exposed to two months of cold in winter, and to two of excessive heat in summer. The pastures are fertile in aromatic plants, all the Wallachian flocks and others from the adjoining provinces are fattened on them, they might supply a sufficient quantity of food for a much greater number of cattle. The Wallachian wool is very valuable, the number of sheep in the country exceeds 2,500,000; there are three different kinds, the *Zigay*, the *Zarkam*, and the *Tartar*, the Zigay wool is short and fine, the Zarkam long and coarse, and the Tartar is not so fine as the first or so coarse as the second. Oxen and horses are exported from the provinces. The fields of maize, wheat and barley, the quantity of fine melons, the variety of fruits, the woods of apple, plum and cherry trees are undoubted proofs of the productive qualities of the soil. The wines are strong and generous, if the vineyards were well cultivated they might be equal to any in Hungary. A thousand other instances of the munificence of nature might be mentioned, but all is of little use to a people without industry and without knowledge.

Mr. Wilkinson, the English consul, supposes the population of Wallachia greater than a million, and that of Moldavia about 600,000; his estimate is higher than what has been hitherto believed, but the same writer is of opinion that these provinces, after ten or fifteen years peace under a good government, might afford subsistence to at

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Revenue, taxes, and exports.

least double the number of inhabitants. Were the right of property held sacred, twice the quantity of corn might be produced, twice the number of cattle might be reared without any extraordinary efforts incompatible with the habits or intelligence of the people.[i] Not more than a sixth part of the land in Wallachia is cultivated, and it seldom yields less than 1,250,000 quarters of wheat, but of these 187,500 must be sent to Constantinople; the inhabitants are likewise obliged to supply the same capital every year with 3,000 horses and 25,000 sheep. Another tax the *numi* or tribute in money is rigorously exacted, two millions of Turkish piasters are thus levied in Wallachia, and one million in Moldavia. The tributary peasants are arranged according to their wealth or poverty into *loods* or classes, the number of individuals in each lood varies from five to ten; there were in 1817, according to the register of the *Great Vestry* 18,000 *loods*, and the sum paid by them was 10,800,000 Turkish piasters or L. 360,000. A poll tax is imposed on 100,000 merchants and hucksters, mostly Jews, Armenians and foreigners from different countries. The other taxes yield a revenue of 2,730,000 piasters; 600,000 are raised on salt, 380,000 at the custom-house, 420,000 from the couriers and post office. The *vinarit*, the *oyarit* and the *dysonarit* or the duties on wine, mutton and pork amount to 1,380,000. These sums may appear incredible, but they are paid before they become due by a company of revenue farmers. It is not likely that commerce can flourish in a country where there are so many taxes and tax-gatherers. The principal imports are German cloth, English muslin and French cambric; the exports consist among other articles of 500,000 hare skins, 600,000 *okas*[k] of *rhamnus infectorius*, a grain useful in dying, and 1,760,000 *okas* of excellent wool.

[i] Wilkinsons's Account of Wallachia and Moldavia; or Tableau de la Valachie et de la Moldavie, par M. Wilkinson, traduit avec des additions importantes par M. de la Roquette.

[k] The *oka* is nearly equal to a pound.

Divisions.

The subdivisions and the manner in which the subdivisions are governed, shall be explained in the tables; it may be remarked that the country is divided into Wallachia Proper on the east of the Aluta, and Little Wallachia or the bannat of *Krayowa* on the west of the same river. The last portion has for some time been in the possession of Austria.

Towns.

The towns may be shortly described; in reality there is only one, in it the hospodar holds his court, and the boyars crowd round his throne; if the viceroy changes his residence, the town is ruined; thus Ardschis retains only its fine church and marble columns. If Busco can be compared to a small provincial town, it owes that advantage to its bishop, its priests and its friars. No ramparts, palaces or houses inhabited by couriers can be seen in *Tergowischti*, but the air is still salubrious and the position delightful; it was peopled at one time by 30,000 individuals, at present it does not contain 5000 inhabitants. Bucharest is now the favoured spot; how long it may continue so is uncertain; the houses or rather cottages are for the most part built of clay, and near them are several large convents, numerous towers and sixty Greek churches in the midst of gardens, groves and public walks. The population amounts to 60,000 souls. The Boyars ride in gilt carriages,—play at pharao,—pay their court to the prince,—appear at the reviews of the Albanian guard,—attend the German theatre, and long for the opening of the Italian opera, which cannot, it is thought, be much longer retarded, as the building is now nearly finished. The Greeks from Constantinople manage the financial department, and are adepts in all the corruption and vices of the court. The youth are instructed in the ancient gymnastic exercises, and some Greek physicians educated in Germany, retain the studious habits which they acquired in the universities of that country. The languages spoken by the higher classes are modern Greek, bad Italian and worse French. The women are not so closely watched as in other Turkish countries; they are more intelligent, their manners are more

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agreeable, but although they are not excluded from social amusements, their condition is by no means enviable. Marriages are made without consulting the inclinations of the parties; if a lady has a number of suitors, the wealthiest amongst them, or the one who agrees to marry her with the least dower, is always preferred by her parents; but the most serious evil is the scandalous facility by which divorces can be obtained, or rather by which marriages may be declared null. A rich man can at any time repudiate his wife; the discipline of the Greek church in Wallachia is shamefully relaxed.

Some other towns may be briefly enumerated; *Fokschani* is situated on the road that passes by Busco from Bucharest to Moldavia, it is peopled by 6000 souls, adorned with a great many churches, and the neighbouring fields are covered with vineyards. *Ploiesti* is resorted to on account of its fair. *Philipecti* has fallen into decay, some boyars still reside in its castles. The merchandise of Cronstadt in Transylvania is deposited in *Kimpina*. All these towns are situated to the north of Fokschani in a mountainous but populous country. *Kimpolung*, a burgh in the north-west of the province, retains its immunities, but has lost its commerce. *Slobojat* is the only town worthy of notice on the plains of the Danube, the theatre of so many wars. *Oraschul*[1] or the town of the waves on the same plains is not likely to recover its former grandeur. The crescent floats on the ramparts of Giurgiew and Brailow, the fortresses from which the Turkish troops issue to pillage the fields, and carry off the flocks. The protection of Russia granted in 1771 and renewed in 1812 is no security against the incursions of barbarians.

Towns in Little Wallachia.

Krayowa, the capital of western or Little Wallachia, is regularly built and peopled by 8000 inhabitants, of whom a great proportion are tradesmen and artisans, and *Izlas* at the junction of the Aluta is likely from its position to become a commercial town. It was at the village of *Balta-*

[1] Oraschul is generally, but incorrectly written Orasch.

Wierda that the Tartars assembled to divide their spoils after a successful campaign against Austria. An old tower which is still shown at *Kimpul-Severinulici*, another village, is believed to be the remains of a bridge built on the Danube by the emperor Severus.

Passes.

The passes between Wallachia and Transylvania are highly important in a political and military point of view; they form advantageous military stations and commercial roads for the Austrians. The most remarkable are those of *Botza* and *Torzburg*, *Vulcan* or *Wolkan* and the *Red Tower*, where the Carolinian way begins, the immense but now neglected work of M. Stainville, a French engineer in the service of Austria.

Climate.

Moldavia, at present limited by the Pruth, a great tributary river that enters the Danube, is the most northern province in the Ottoman empire, it extends between the Russian and Austrian dominions, like a promontory between two boisterous seas threatening to overwhelm it. Although the country is situated on the eastern sides of the Carpathian mountains, the interior forms an extensive plain, intersected by the Pruth and the *Sereth*. The bold and steep banks of these rivers appear at a distance like a range of lofty hills; but the stranger who leaves Jassy must travel twenty-eight leagues before he comes in sight of the Carpathian chain. The Moldavian winters are in general intensely cold; in 1788 Reaumur's thermometer stood at 21° below zero.[m] The summers on the contrary are very warm, the grape is ripe by the end of July, and the vintage is over in the month of September. Moldavia is exposed to frequent earthquakes, but they are never violent;[n] the same country abounds in mines of every description, all of them are neglected, were the inhabitants to work them, the produce of their labour would without doubt be sent to Constantinople; on that account no wealth is now derived

[m] If the above statement be correct, the degree of cold must have been equal to 14 + 3-4th below zero of Fahrenheit.

[n] Wolff, Mémoires sur la Moldavie.

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Productions.

from the famous mines near Baya on the Moldava.[n] Salt is obtained in great quantities, 7500 tons are taken from the pits at Okna, and at no great distance is a large rock formed by a mass of crystalline salt.[o] The principal trade of *Soroko* on the Dneister consists in saltpetre, the process used in making it is very defective; a considerable quantity is exported by the Polish Jews, who receive brandy in exchange. Sulphureous springs have been discovered near *Grosseschti*, and not far from the *Sireth*, on the road between *Baken* and *Roman*. The Bistritza rolls its golden sand, the district of Niamz abounds in ferruginous springs. Wheat and barley are cultivated throughout the country, the barley is given to horses, millet too is a very common crop, it is roasted and made into *talk*, a Tartar substitute for coffee. Buck-wheat was at one time almost the only kind of grain in the province, but Prince Nicolas Maurocordato introduced the culture of maize in 1710; from one or other of these two plants, *Mamaliga*, a gelatinous substance is made and forms the principal food of the country people in Moldavia, Servia and Wallachia. The best maize grows on the lands in the neighbourhood of *Husch* and *Paskan*, a village on the Sireth.

The cultivation of fruit trees and esculent plants is not in a very advanced state; such as are in most common use are the *Solanum melongena* and the *Hibiscus esculentus*, the melon thrives throughout the province, and the grape is the most valuable of the Moldavian fruits. A great quantity of wine is exported to Poland and Russia or *Nishegorod;* the annual average duty levied during the vintage amounts to 380 *purses* or 190,000 piasters; now as a piaster is imposed on ten buckets or *eymers* of wine, it follows that the number of eymers obtained annually is not less than 1,900,000.[p] That estimate, however, is much too low; the boyars, who collect the tax, always under-rate the produce of their own lands, besides more

[n] *Baya* in Moldavian and *banya* in Hungarian signify a mine.

[o] Sulzer. Transalpin. Dazien, t. I. p. 146.

[p] The eymer varies in different countries, it amounts probably in Moldavia to nine gallons.

than a tenth of the vineyards are in the hands of the clergy; their portion is exempt from imposts, many individuals enjoy the same privilege, so that the quantity of wine produced in an ordinary season is more than double what has been stated. The *Odokescht* is considered the best Moldavian wine, next to it is the *Kotnar*, which is like, but inferior to champagne, different sorts of a good quality are made in the neighbourhood of Huscht, Nikorescht and Jassy. *Vermouth* and other kinds of brandy are common in the country. The cultivation of the vineyards and the art of making wine might be greatly improved; one of the clumsy methods to which the inhabitants have recourse, consists in exposing a great many barrels to the winter's frost; the crust of ice is perforated with a red-hot iron, in this way the aqueous particles are more freely disengaged, and a stronger liquor flows from the cask.

Animals.

Many districts are covered with rich pastures or extensive forests; numerous herds of swine are fattened on acorns in the woods, and a species of which the hoof is not cleft, is common, says M. Wolf, in the district of Orhei. The Moldavians pay great attention to their horses, several boyars have no fewer than four or five hundred; these animals are highly valued in Austria and Prussia, and are mostly used by the light cavalry; but beyond the Pruth, in that part of the country ceded to the Russians, the horses are stronger and as active.

Cattle.

The oxen are of a better kind than the Wallachian, and great numbers are exported every year to Silesia and Bohemia. The goat and the sheep abound in the province; the number of goats is not less than 3,248,000, but the people are compelled by law to sell a certain number to the Turks, at a price fixed by the prince or governor, who, to gain popularity at Constantinople, makes the price almost nominal.

The forests are well stocked with deer, wild boars, chamois and hares; there are besides a great many bears, wolves, foxes and martens, of which the skins are ex-

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ported to different parts of Europe. Peacocks, pintados and hawks are kept at the country seats of the nobles; it is customary to send every year twenty-four falcons to the Grand Seignior. Few countries are better supplied with bees, these insects cost but little trouble; the hollow trunk of a tree is closed at one end, and thus converted into a hive; all the swarms are destroyed in October by the vapour of charcoal, the hives are then covered with straw or hay, and deposited in cellars during winter; before the division of the province, the prince derived a revenue of 60,000 piasters from the tithe on honey and green aromatic wax. Moldavia is overrun with grasshoppers, in one season these insects destroyed all the fields of maize.

Towns and burghs.

No towns of any note are situated in Russian Moldavia on the east of the Pruth, the Russians desired and obtained the three fortresses of *Chotzin*, *Bender* and *Ismael*. *Boluschani*, a commercial town, peopled by four or five thousand inhabitants, *Piatra*, where several fairs are held in the course of the year, and *Niamtsch* with its monastery, the residence of 500 *kalogeris*, who boast of possessing a miraculous and silver image of the Virgin, are the most important places in the high districts. The name of Niamtsch is not derived from *Niemetz*, a German, but from *Niam*, a Slavonic divinity that was adored at Niamtsch or Nimtch in Silesia. The ruins of *Semendrowa* or St. Andrew, a Slavonic city near *Roman* on the Sireth, once the capital of Servia, are still visited by strangers. Some notion may be formed of the condition of the people from the description which Mr. Wolf gives of a Moldavian burgh. "Small houses made of wood and covered with clay, ill cultivated gardens, narrow and dirty streets, a large inn where travellers tormented with insects, can obtain no other food than coarse *mamaliga*, no other drink than bad wine, are the common defects not of one but of every small town in the country. The wind circulates freely in the house of an ispraunik; the paper windows may be easily torn, but it is very difficult to keep the

doors shut; the habitations of the isprauniks are of course superior to the dwellings of those who pay tribute."

Jassy, the capital.

Jassy, the capital, is situated on the side of a hill in a fertile country, but the river *Bakloui*, which is not unlike a continuation of marshes, and the miasms that rise from the drains in every street, render the town unhealthy. The only villas in the neighbourhood are two near the vineyards of *Kopo*, they belong to the *Waiwode*. The five thousand houses in Jassy are placed together without any regularity, five hundred are built of stone, and fifty consist of more than a single story. The ancient palace, which is supposed to have been built by the Romans under Trajan, was formerly the largest and finest edifice in the town, it was burnt in 1783, it has not since that time been rebuilt. The wealth of the inhabitants is displayed in their dress and ornaments, not in their feasts or entertainments. The wife of a rich Boyar exhibits sometimes on her person, jewels and precious stones worth about twenty or thirty thousand piasters, but foreign wine is rarely seen on the tables of the nobles. The country, the towns and, above all, the capital are crowded with mendicants.

The genius of Catherine, and the cowardice of the Vizier, whom Charles the Twelfth insulted, were the means of saving the Czar and the Russian army at *Huscht* on the banks of the Pruth.

Galacz, a town of seven thousand inhabitants, is the most commercial of any in Moldavia or Wallachia; its port which can admit ships of 300 tons, is always crowded with Austrian, Russian and Ottoman vessels. It might become the Alexandria of the Danube, if the three great powers could establish a lasting peace among themselves, or were politic enough to erect an intermediate kingdom on the Lower Danube. The Wallachians send a great part of their produce across the mountains to Transylvania and also to the harbour of Varna, the exports for both the principalities pass by Galacz. The Greek Jews in the town deal in cloth, wool, silk and fur, but the real children of Israel confine themselves to trinkets and jewels;

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the Russian sells hides and tobacco, the grave Musulman brings his fine Morocco leather, spices and aromatics, one of which, *odogatch*, a resin that is extracted from the *Agallochum verum*, is very valuable, an ounce is sold for a ducat; the rich perfume their beards with this unguent, and it is customary when people of distinction visit them to put a small quantity in their pipes. It is difficult to say whether the Wallachian or Moldavian government is the worst. The prince or the vassal of the Turks exercises despotic authority over the Boyars, whom the Greeks call *archontes*, and the Moldavians *kokons* or Lords. The manner in which justice is dispensed, is as imperfect as any other branch of the executive department; a uniform system of legislation is rendered impracticable from the frequent removals of the princes, and the right which they have of abrogating all the decrees of their predecessors. If the court have any difficulty about deciding a case, the Divan consults an abridgement of the Roman code by Armenopolus, a writer that was contemporary with Alexander the Good, whose reign began in 1401 and terminated in 1433; before that time there were no written laws in Moldavia. The decisions of the Divan are always arbitrary; the few statutes that are in force, are falsely interpreted; hence arise many complicated law-suits, which the prince or subordinate judges can unravel with incredible despatch, if either party is prudent or rich enough to bribe them beforehand.

Govern-ment.

Revenue.

The revenue of the governor is chiefly derived from the *birr*, a tax that is exacted every month, because the Viceroy is uncertain how long he may hold his situation. Duties are levied on cattle and different articles of consumption; it appears from authentic documents, which Mr. Wolf was permitted to examine in the country, that the taxes and imposts raised in Moldavia amount annually to 2,430,000 piasters. It is thus obvious how greatly Sulzer and Carra were mistaken, when they computed the total revenue to be 250,000 piasters. The prince must raise 325 purses or 162,500 Turkish piasters as a tribute for the Porte. The

presents for the Sultan, his relatives and ministers, the expenses of transport, and the pay of the public functionaries are not less than 230,000 piasters. To cover all these expenses without diminishing his own revenue, the governor uses every pretext to extort money from his subjects. Thus, it often happens that one *waiwode* supplanted by a greater adept in intrigue, returns to Constantinople with full coffers in the company of Turkish usurers, who advanced him money when successful candidate, and followed him to his government in the expectation of receiving exorbitant interest. The Turks participate sometimes in the plunder of a deposed prince by borrowing from him large sums, which if he refuses to lend, charges of mal-administration are raised against him, his wealth is confiscated, and he himself sent into exile. To obviate such difficulties, the *waiwodes* take the first opportunity of investing in foreign funds the money which they gain in the province.

Character and manners.

The good qualities of the people are stifled by oppression. Prince Demetrius Kantemir declaims against the pride, avarice and ignorance of his subjects and countrymen; but he himself was not free from these vices. Mr. Wolf, the German consul, reprehends them with equal severity. Although given to hospitality, the higher classes are haughty and harsh to the lower, crouching to their superiors; mean, pliant, suspicious, vindictive and as jealous as the Turks. According to Count Karaizai, the men are strong and well-made, their intelligence and ingenuity enable them in some degree to supply the want of machinery and manufactures; their greatest vices are drunkenness, idleness, and an inveterate attachment to established customs. The women in their youth are gay and cheerful, in the married state they soon bear the marks of premature old age; the wives of the peasants, the mothers of families are condemned to labour like slaves, few hours of joy or amusement vary the dull monotony of their lives.

Ungarians.

Many Wallachians migrated from Transylvania or Hungary, and settled in Moldavia; the native considers him.

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self above them, and calls them *Oungaraines;* the difference in their manners and dialects is hardly perceptible. [s]

Zigeunes, Gypsies, or Bohemians.

We shall conclude our account of European Turkey with some observations on a different people, not the Turks, or haughty rulers of all these provinces. We have endeavoured in another part of this work to describe that degenerate nation, its manners, government, power and resources.[q] It is necessary to descend still lower in the chain of civilization, and to examine a people scattered like the Jews in every country, but without the distinction of a peculiar religion. "They have wandered through the world, and in every region, and among every people they have continued equally unchanged by the lapse of time, the variation of climate, and the force of example. Their singular physiognomy and manners are the same in every country. Their complexion receives no darker shade from the burning sun of Africa, or any fairer tint from the milder climates of Europe. They contract no additional laziness in Spain; they acquire no habits of industry in England. In Turkey, they behold the mosque and the crescent with the same indifference that they look on a catholic or protestant church in Europe. In the neighbourhood of civilized life, they continue barbarous, and near cities and settled inhabitants, they live in tents and holes in the earth, or wander from place to place like fugitives and vagabonds." These people are lively, fickle and faithless to every one, even to their own cast, addicted to sensuality, and, like savages, indifferent about the choice of their food. If an ox die of disease, and they can obtain its carcass, men, women and children hasten to the feast, and after their brandy or strong drink is exhausted, they pursue their journey, or take up their quarters for the night.[r] The women may be distinguished by their dark and sparkling eyes, tanned complexion, oval visage, white teeth and jet-

[q] Vol. II.

[r] A gypsy, when censured on account of his taste, replied that a beast which God kills, must be as good as any killed by man.

black hair. They deal in prostitution, wanton dances and fortune-telling; the mother trains her daughter in vice, and the daughter is scarcely grown before she follows the example of her mother. Although their clothes hardly hang together, a stranger perceives sometimes part of a military coat, the fragment of a lace cap, a torn handkerchief or paltry trinket; their gait and deportment, when thus adorned, evince a more than ordinary share of vanity.

Trades, Arts, &c.

The wandering tribe of Zigeunes find occupation in some countries as smiths and tinkers; they mend broken plates, and sell wooden ware; a class of them in Moldavia and Wallachia lead a settled life, and gain a livelihood by washing or searching for gold in the beds of rivers;[s] those in the Bannat of Hungary are horse-dealers, and are gradually obeying the enactments of Joseph the II., by which they are compelled to cultivate the land; but the great majority in Europe abhor a permanent residence and stated hours of labour. The women abuse the credulity of the German and Polish peasants, who imagine that they cure their cattle by witchcraft, and predict fortunate events by inspecting the lineaments of the hand. It is lawful for the wives of the *Tchinganes* in Turkey to commit adultery with impunity. Many individuals of both sexes, particularly throughout Hungary, are passionately fond of music, the only science in which they have as yet attained any degree of perfection; they are the favourite minstrels of the country people; some have arrived at eminence in cathedrals, and in the choirs of princes. Their guitar is heard in the romantic woods of Spain, and many gypsies, less indolent than the indolent Spaniards, exercise in that country the trade of publicans. They follow willingly whatever occupation most men hate or condemn; in Hungary and Transylvania they are flayers of dead beasts, and executioners of criminals—the mass of the nation is composed of thieves and mendicants.

[s] These people are called Zingunis by the Wallachians and Moldavians.

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Number.

The total number of these savages in Europe has never been considered less than 300,000, or than 150,000 in Turkey, 70,000 in Wallachia and Moldavia, 40,000 in Hungary and Transylvania, the rest are scattered in Russia, Prussia, Poland, Germany, Jutland, Spain and other countries. Persia and Egypt are infested with them, they have appeared in Spanish America.

Different names of the Gypsies.

The race of the gypsies, however abject, has been the subject of numerous researches, and from some of them considerable information may be gained on the origin and classification of different states.[t] It might be thought from their various names that all the tribes are not of the same origin; they call themselves *Romi*, *Manusch* and *Gadzi*, each of these appellations is connected with a separate language, the first with the Copt, the second with the Sanscrit, and the third with the Celtic. It has been lately proved by a careful and unprejudiced writer, that *sinte*, a plural noun, is the only *national* name recognised by those of Prussian Lithuania. The title next to it in importance is the Polish one of *Zingani*, which corresponds with the *Zigonas* of the Lithuanians, the *Zingani* of the Wallachians, the *Zingari* of the Hungarians and Italians, the *Ziguene* of the Germans, the *Tchinganes* of the Turks, and the *Atchingans* of some writers that lived during the middle ages. Such are the names by which at present they are most commonly designated; it may be remarked, however, that the English words, Gypsies or Egyptians, and the Spanish term *Gitanos*, are corruptions from *Pharoumi*, a name by which a horde of these vagrants distinguished themselves in the dark ages. They passed through Bohemia into Germany

[t] All the researches anterior to the year 1787, have been united by Grellman in his history of the Zigeunes. The vocabulary in the same work was written by Büttner. The other works on the subject are, an account of the Prussian Zigeunes, written by M. Krause and M. Zippel, in the Berliner Monathschrift, 1793; February and April. Comparative Vocabularies by Adelung, Mithridates, t. I. p. 244. Extracts from the manuscript grammar of M. Krause, by M. Vater, in his supplement to Mithridates; and lastly Richardson's account of the Bazigurs. Asiatic Researches, vol. VII.

and France, and have for that reason been styled Bohemians. The Persians call them *Siseeh Hindou*, or Black Indians. BOOK C.

The historical traditions concerning the tribe, are reduced to the vague recollection of an ancient and happy people under princes of their own race, that inhabited a country which, according to the doubtful assertion of a writer of the fifteenth century, the first Zigeunes called Little Egypt. It is also affirmed that when they first appeared, they were conducted in their migrations by dukes, princes and even by kings. All the knowledge derived from their history is that they have wandered for many ages. No trace of their worship or religious belief, if they have any, can be discovered. They follow the customs of the countries in which they reside. Traditions.

The only information which can be obtained concerning them must be founded on the nature of their language; but the dialect of such a tribe, it may be supposed, is made up of the cant terms of beggars and pickpockets, or not unlike the *rothwelsch* of the German banditti, or the jargon of the *Kataphiani*, the itinerant physicians in Turkey. Such, however, is not the case, and a people without a country, an asylum, laws or religion, speak a regular language, furnished with grammatical forms. Not less than two or three hundred of its principal roots have been shown to be the same with as many in the Sanscrit and other eastern languages;[u] in short, it is a branch of that Indian family, in which the Sanscrit is not the source as many term it, but the most common and the best known; in the tents of these wanderers are spoken the dialects of the *Vedas*, the *Puranas*, the *Brachmans*, and the *Budalis*. Language.

[u] Thus, *kam*, the sun; *sohon*, the moon; *bhu*, the earth; *ag*, fire; *pani*, water; *sonkuai*, gold; *rup*, silver; *sukh*, an eye; *kan*, an ear; *lolo*, red; *kalo*, black; *kamela*, love; *schiva*, life; *ratch*, night; *schero*, a head, &c. &c. It may be seen from these and other examples that the *Zigeunian* is not widely removed from the Sanscrit and eastern languages, like the Greek, Latin, Slavonic and Gothic, but is chiefly a Hindoo dialect.

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The above fact was confirmed by Buttner; it need not therefore excite surprise if the language of the Zigeunes, from their migrations or common origin, is connected with many others different from any yet enumerated. Thus its relation with the Persic may be easily explained;[x] it has been demonstrated that it contains about forty Slavonic words, the most of them expressive of natural objects,[y] and we have lately observed in it as many Finnic, Permiak, Wogoul and Hungarian terms.[z] These discoveries cannot be considered useful until the means have been obtained of classifying the different hordes and marking the distinctions by which they are separated. The structure of the auxiliary verb is the same as others in the Indo-Pelasgic tongues, but the pronouns have a remarkable analogy with the Persic, and the declension of nouns with the Turkish.[a]

What conclusion can be drawn from all these facts? The learned Grellman and his friend Buttner have not hesitated to affirm that the Zigeunes are one of the low Indian castes expelled from their country during some great political revolution, and in consequence of that event, now accustomed and habituated to a wandering life. The Hindoo character of their language, their physical qualities, and the name of Sinte by which they are often called, are three strong arguments in favour of the hypothesis at present generally admitted. Several writers have attempted to ascertain the period of their migrations and the region which they formerly inhabited. The devastations committed in India by Tamerlane about the year 1400, afford a

[x] We observe an analogy between the Persic and the Gothic in the verb to make; *kir*, make; *me kirava*, I make; and *me kerdum*, I did make.

[y] Adelung and Vater; Mithridates, II. 247; IV. 85.

[z] For example, sea, *sero*, zig. *suris*, perm. *surz*, Wog.; Mountain, *hedjo*, zig. *hegy*, Hung.; a hill, *dombo*, zig. *domb*, Hung.; heart, *sie*, zig. *syo*, Finn.; *saiv*, Hung.; oats, *dschov*, zig. *zab*, Hung.; town, *forius*, zig. *varos*, Hung.; mist, *koeddo*, zig. *kœd*, Hung.; knee, *tchanga*, zig. *tchantchi*, Wog.; old, *puro*, zig. *pyras*, perm. &c. &c.

[a] Sinte, the Zigeunes; ablative, Sintenden, like erlerden in Turkish.

plausible pretext for their flight. It may too be kept in view that their country should be sought in the western part of India near the banks of the Indus or the Sinde. Pallas infers from their dialect that their ancient country is Moultan, and their origin, the same as that of the Hindoo merchants at present at Astrakhan.[b] Bartolomeo believes they came from *Guzurate*, perhaps from the neighbourhood of Tatta, where a horde of pirates called Tchinganes still reside.[c] Lastly, Richardson boasts of having found them among the Bazigurs, a wandering tribe of minstrels and dancers.[d] If it be necessary to trace their descent from the inferior Hindoo castes, none in our opinion resembles the Zigeunes more than a tribe of the Soudras, or "the Correvas who have no fixed abode, but lodge in tents, they live by selling baskets or *mending kettles*, and their women gain money by *fortune telling*."[e] Such employments are descriptive of the gypsies.

Few objections of any importance can be raised against the general hypothesis, but the details connected with it are not so easily explained. Thus if the Ziguenes were Parias, they might in all probability have been the objects of Tamerlane's persecution, but it is not less likely that they would at once have professed Islamism as they now do in Turkey. If they were Tchinganes, the ingenious supposition may be admitted that they fled by sea and arrived in Egypt; but it is necessary to account for the change in their character, these warlike pirates are now mendicants and poltroons. If the Zigeunes were originally a branch of the Soudras or the Banians from Moultan, how happens it that no trace of their superstition is left? If it be answered that the Carrewas and other low castes were as ignorant and as wretched as the Parias, then it must be shown why people so obscure were expel-

[b] Pallas, Neue nordische beitræge, III. p. 96.

[c] Paulin de St. Bartolomeo, Voyage II. p. 197. French translation.

[d] Asiatic Researches, VII. p. 451.

[e] Valentyn, Oud-and Nieuw-Ostindien, Vol. A., p. 88. (Kust Choromandel; B., Derde book, Tweede hoofdstuck.)

BOOK C. led from a country in which their neighbours and equals were permitted to remain.

Another objection of a more general kind may be urged against the supposition that the Zigeunes migrated from Indostan about the year 1400. Numerous and thickly scattered hordes inhabited Wallachia, Hungary and Poland in the year 1433, while only a few detached bands appeared in Persia, Turkey and Caucasus.

Indo-European origin. The celebrated M. Hasse, the author of a different hypothesis,[f] has proved that for the last 3000 years there have been in Europe wandering tribes that bore the names of *Segynes* or Zigeunes, and *Sinties* or Sinti; the same writer considers the modern gypsies, the Zigeunes or Sintis, the descendants of these ancient hordes. A Polish geographer, M. Lelewel has clearly shown that Hindoo nations have been settled since the dawn of history on the shore of the Cimmerian Bosphorus and in Europe, particularly in Thrace.[g] The merits of both these systems may be shortly examined.

Sigynes. A tribe whose name was almost the same as that of the Zigeunes, is mentioned in the most ancient profane history. "The Sigynes, who resemble the Medes in their dress, live on the north side of the Ister (Danube,) in a country which seems to be desert, at least they are the only inhabitants of whom I have received any information. They have little horses with long hair, which are not strong enough to carry men, but able to draw cars with great rapidity. Their frontiers extend to those of the Heneti, a people on the Adriatic. They call themselves a colony of Medes, a point concerning which I cannot decide, though it may be true, if we make allowance for the lapse of ages. The Ligurians give the name of Sigynes to travelling merchants, the Cyprians to javelins or spears."[h] Such is the testimony of

[f] Die Zigeuner in Herodot. by J. G. Hasse, Kœnigsberg, 1803. The same hypothesis was first maintained by Behr, Zusætze zur allg. Welthistor III. sect. 54.

[g] Lelewel, badania starozytnoci geographii, &c. (Researches on ancient geography,) Wilna, 1817.

[h] Herod. p. 183, Ed. Stephani. See Sturtz. de lingua Maced. p. 46.

the father of profane history. Strabo describes a people bearing the name of Siginii, and inhabiting the Hyrcanian mountains on the south side of the Caspian sea. "They resembled the Persians in their manners, and had little horses with long hair, not fit for riding, but useful in drawing chariots. In the Argonautics of Apollonius the Sigynnæ are placed at the mouth of the Danube,[k] and in the poems ascribed to Orpheus, in Pontus.[l]

Sufficient evidence of their ancient migrations is afforded by their settlements in these three distant countries. The description of their horses corresponds with that of the same animal in Baskiria and on the plains of Scythia.[m] We cannot determine whether the Caucasian *Zingi* of Pliny, or the Indian *Singæ* of the same author were not different as to their origin from the Zigeunes or Zinganes; or if any traces of these ancient and errant tribes existed in Cappadocia, and in the town of *Zingana.*

Sinties or Sindi.

Different hordes of the same people are probably descended from the Sindi or Sinti, the former inhabitants of Sindica, a country near the Cimmerian Bosphorus. It is supposed from the ancient manuscripts that the name of that region is Indica;[n] the words *Sind*, *Hind* and *Ind* are almost synonymous, and generally confounded by orientalists. Hesychius reconciles at all events the opinions of the ancients, and calls the Sindi an Indian people. The traditions concerning the commercial industry of these tribes, their cowardice, their submitting to the lash of Scythian masters, the prostitution of their women, whose name became a term of reproach, are so many proofs of their common origin with the Zigeunes or Sinties of the present day.° It is a curious fact, and one maintained by Stephen of Byzantium, that the Sindi used to carry on so-

[i] Strabo XI. p. 520. Ed. 1620.

[k] Argonautic, IV. 220. [l] Orph. Arg. V. 754.

[m] Georgi, Russisches Reich III. sixth section, p. 1659.

[n] Herodotus IV. 28. Ed. Wessel. p. 293, note 7, p. 321, note 19. M. Lelewel has published a map of India polnocznia or northern India.

° Notes by Dureau de Lamalle, on Valerius Flaccus.

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lemn occasions a figure of the *lingam*;[p] the same custom prevailed in Indostan. Different branches of the same people were scattered throughout Macedonia, a country in which we observe a Sintic district, and in Lemnos, where the Sinties were the *workmen of Vulcan*; such employment is still the chief occupation of the Zigeunes.

Hindoo nations of Europe.

The *Sinties* and *Sigynnii* are not the only Asiatic people dispersed in Europe, or on its confines. The Scythians of the royal tribe were Medes by birth; a knowledge of their language may enable us to explain the ancient geographical names of Scythia. The opinion of D'Anville concerning the Tartar origin of the Getæ is now generally rejected; it is expected that ere long additional information may be obtained from the researches of M. de Saint Martin on the *European India* of the Armenian writers. It is known that the lower Danube was anciently called *Matous*, a name supposed to have been derived from the Indian hero, *Madhou*, the antagonist of *Krischna*, or from the word *madhur*, which signifies fresh water. Scylax mentions the town of Aigypsos, Ovid calls it Aigyptos, and adds that it was founded by a Caspian on the delta of the Danube;[q] from that place, in all probability, the Zigeunes obtained the title of Egyptians or Gypsies. The existence of the Indi in Asia Minor is attested in the history of the Machabees, and completely proved in a different work.[r]

Conclusion.

It may be concluded from these detached facts, that tribes of the Hindoo race have been wandering or settled in Europe or its confines from the earliest historical age. It is for the historian and orientalist to examine how they came thither, whether they migrated in an age of which no record is left, or were the enemies of Khrisna, a

[p] Organs of generation.

[q] Ovid. Pont. I. Eleg. 9, IV. Eleg. 7.

[r] 1. Machab. chap. viii. verse 8. Claudius on the Indians of Asia Minor, in Repertor. f. biblische Litteratur., XI.

supposition that might explain their singular pretension of having formerly rejected Christ, or if they were a branch of the *Hindowan Berber*, that Schah Namé places in the *hyperborean* regions, or colonies transported from the Indus by the despots of Persia. The geographer has discovered that there existed at an ancient period in Europe, tribes from which the Zigeunes or Sintes appear to have been descended. It is unnecessary for him to extend his inquiries beyond that remarkable fact, or to explain why these petty hordes remained so long unknown in the midst of so many wanderers and savages during the Roman empire in the east. They might have called themselves *Roma*, from being the subjects of the Romans, they might have wandered near the marshes of Lower Wallachia and Little Egypt, where they are said to have formed a state, situated perhaps in the neighbourhood of Ægypsos. The Zigeunes, the Sintes, the Gypsies, Bohemians and Tchinganes are probably so many tribes distinguished by their dialects and local migrations.

INCREASE AND DECLINE OF THE TURKISH POWER.

The reader will find, in the second volume of this work, a general view of the Ottoman empire;[q] but we thought it better to postpone to this period the observations we had to make on the increase and decline of the Ottoman power.

The rapid progress and still more rapid decline of the Ottoman or Turkish power are among the most interesting phenomena in the history of Europe. The Turks are descended from a horde of Tartars, who emigrated from the countries contiguous to the Caspian Sea about the year 850, and who, for several centuries after, interfered with decisive effect in the contests and revolutions of the Saracen Asiatic nations. Othman, the chief of the Oguzian Tartars, is reckoned the real founder of the Turkish empire. He succeeded his father in 1289, his dominions being then confined to the lordship of Siguta in Bithynia, and a small tract of adjoining territory.

[q] Volume II. Book XXIX.

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But the talent of Othman, and the bravery and zeal of his followers, enabled him to add greatly to his paternal inheritance, and to bequeath the whole of Bithynia and Cappadocia to his son and successor. From this period the tide of Turkish conquest began to roll forward with a force that could not be checked by the feeble resistance of the Greeks. In 1338 the Ottomans first obtained a footing in Europe. In 1362 Amurath, the grandson of Othman, instituted the Janizaries, the first, and for a long period the most powerful, numerous, and best disciplined standing army established in modern times. The conquests of Timour threatened to subvert the Turkish power; but it soon recovered from the shocks it had sustained; and, in 1453, Mahomet II. entered Constantinople sword in hand, and established himself on the throne of Constantine and Justinian! But the undisturbed possession of all the countries from Mount Amanus to the Danube, did not satisfy the restless and insatiable ambition of the Turks. Selim, the grandson of Mahomet II., added Syria and Egypt to the dominions of his ancestors; and Solyman the Magnificent, the contemporary of the Emperor Charles V. and the most accomplished of all the Ottoman princes, conquered the greater part of Hungary, and in the east extended his sway to the Euphrates. At this period the Turkish empire was unquestionably the most powerful in the world. "If you consider, says the historian Knolles, who wrote about two centuries since, "its beginning, its progress, and uninterrupted success, there is nothing in the world more admirable and strange; if the greatness and lustre thereof, nothing more magnificent and glorious; if the power and strength thereof, nothing more dreadful and dangerous; which, wondering at nothing but the beauty of itself, and drunk with the pleasant wine of perpetual felicity, holdeth all the rest of the world in scorn." Nor had this mighty power even then reached its greatest height. Solyman was succeeded by other able princes; and the Ottoman arms continued to maintain their ascendency over those of Christendom, until the famous John Sobieski, king of Poland, forced them to raise the siege of

Vienna in 1683. This event marked the era of their decline. For a while they continued to oppose the Austrians and Hungarians with doubtful fortune and various success; but the victories of Prince Eugene gave a decisive superiority to the Christians. The Crescent, instead of recovering its former lustre, fell like a star plucked from its place in heaven. And the existence of the Ottoman empire for the last sixty or seventy years has depended, not on its own strength, but on the mutual animosities and jealousies of the different European powers.

When considered with attention, it does not seem difficult to discover the causes of these apparently anomalous and inexplicable results. The Turks, like their Tartar ancestors, are naturally a brave, patient, and hardy race. After their emigration from Scythia, they were long exposed to the greatest difficulties and privations. Pressed on all sides by the Mongols, Turkmans, Saracens, and Greeks, they could not maintain their footing in Asia Minor without waging incessant hostilities with their neighbours. They were thus early inured to habits of pillage and blood. And, after they embraced the Mahometan faith, they found in the law of the prophet, not a licence only, but a command to desolate the world, and to propagate their religion and empire by violence. The peculiar tenets and leading doctrines of the Koran made a profound impression on the ferocious, ignorant, and superstitious minds of the Turks, who early became the most zealous apostles of a religion of which implicit faith and unconquerable energy are the vital principles. Their fanaticism knew no bounds. They literally believed that the sword was the key of heaven and hell, and that to fall fighting in defence of the true faith, was the most glorious of deaths, and was followed by the largest portion of eternal felicity. Firm and unshaken believers in the doctrine of predestination, assured that no caution could avert, and no dangers accelerate their inevitable destiny, they met their enemies without fear or apprehension. All their animal and intellectual energies were thus made to con-

BOOK C. verge, as it were, to a single point, and produced the most astonishing exertions. Tribute, slavery, and death to unbelievers were the glad tidings of the Arabian prophet; and have been loudly proclaimed by his followers over half the Old World. The Ottomans did not, like the Crusaders, require an impulse from pontiffs or preachers to stimulate them to engage in the great work of conquest and conversion; the precept was in their law, the principle in their hearts, and the assurance of success in their swords!

To such desperate energies, wielded by a succession of sultans distinguished for various and consummate ability, the Greeks had nothing to oppose but dispirited troops, and generals destitute alike of courage and capacity. From the age of Justinian the Eastern Empire had been gradually sinking. The emperors were alternately prodigal and avaricious, cruel, profligate, and imbecile. The people were a prey to all the evils of civil and ecclesiastical tyranny. Their bodies were emaciated by fasting; and their intellectual powers dissipated in theological controversies, alike futile and unintelligible. The total defeat of Bajazet, the great-grandson of Othman, afforded an opportunity which, had it been rightly improved, might have enabled the Greeks to expel the Turks from Europe. But the Greeks were totally incapable of profiting either by this or any other event; and the schism of the west, and the factions and wars of France, England, and Germany, deprived them of all foreign assistance, and enabled the Turks to repair their shattered fortunes, and again to become the terror and the scourge of Christendom.

But the same cause to which the Turks principally owed their success, the intolerant bigotry and fanaticism of their religion, proved also the principal cause of their decline. It isolated them from the rest of Europe, and taught them to look down with contempt and aversion on the arts, sciences, and attainments of the infidel world.—"There is," said they, "but one law, and that law forbids all communication with infidels." The more the surrounding nations have distinguished themselves by their

advances in civilization and literature, the more determined have the mass of the Turkish people become to resist their example, to keep within the pale of their own faith, and to despise their progress. The fiery and impetuous zeal by which they were distinguished in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries has long since subsided; but had it continued to burn with undiminished force, it could no longer have rendered them really formidable. The invention of gunpowder, and the various improvements that have been made in the modern art of war, have opposed an invincible obstacle to the success of multitudes without discipline, and of courage without skill. That fanatical fervour, that contempt of danger, and that superiority of numbers and bodily strength, which formerly gave so decided a superiority to the Ottoman troops, could not enable them to contend with the science, the cool deliberate courage, the artillery, and tactics of the troops of Austria, or of Russia. The Turks have degenerated both in their civil and military institutions; but their present weakness is to be ascribed more to their not keeping pace with the progress of their neighbours, than to their positive decline. Haughty, confiding, and illiterate, they have experienced all the fatal consequences of ignorance without once suspecting its cause. Resolved to employ no other means than force, they sunk into despondency when force could no longer avail; and having now almost abandoned the hope of recovery, they present to their own astonishment and the mockery of Europe, the *umbra magni nominis*—the mighty shadow of unreal power:—"We effected our conquests," said the Mufti to the Baron de Tott, "without any aid from European tactics, and we do not now stand in need of them—Our defeats are not the effects of human force; they are the chastisement of our crimes; the decree of heaven has reached us, and nothing can avert the wrath of Omnipotence!"

The unmitigated despotism of the Sultans has been another cause of the rapid decline of the Turkish power. The Sultan is at the head of both church and state. He is

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universally regarded as the vicegerent of God, or rather of the Prophet; and the most unresisting and passive obedience to his word is inculcated as a primary religious duty. For a while the extraordinary exaltation of the power of the Sultan was productive of no bad effects. The perilous circumstances under which the Turks were originally placed, and the difficulties and dangers with which they had to struggle, obliged their chiefs to exert all their faculties. Having to rule over bold and fanatical subjects —to act as their generals in war and their legislators in peace—it was necessary for them to practise the military and the peaceful virtues; to inspire confidence by superior knowledge and resolution; attachment by kindly conduct; respect by dignity; emulation by discernment in the bestowing of rewards; and discipline and good order by a steady adherence to one uniform system. We do not say that nothing is to be ascribed to the personal character of the sovereign; but if we reflect, that except in a single instance, a period of *nine* reigns, and of two hundred and sixty-four years, is occupied from the elevation of Othman to that of Solyman, by a series of warlike and able princes,[r] it must be allowed that something more than chance, that the necessities of the times had produced this long line of able monarchs. No sooner, however, had the tide of Turkish conquest been stopped by the determined resistance of the Hungarians and Germans, and the administration of the provinces been reduced by Solyman into a defined and regular system, no sooner, in short, had the demand for great princes ceased, than the Ottoman monarchs sunk below the level of mediocrity. Instead of being educated in the council or the field, the heirs of royalty and of almost omnipotent power, were brought up in the slothful luxury of the palace. Shut up constantly in their Seraglios, ignorant of public affairs, benumbed by indolence, depraved by the flattery of women, eunuchs, and slaves, their minds contracted with their enjoyments,

r Gibbon, vol. XII. p. 57.

their inclinations were vilified by their habits, and their government grew as vicious, as corrupt, and as worthless as themselves. When the Sultans held the reigns of government in their own hands, their personal wishes led them to take a warm interest in the prosperity of their empire; but the moment they intrusted them to mercenary slaves, they separated their own from the public interests. In the first instance, the Sultans, guided by the necessity of affairs, employed only men of ability and experience, and the administration, even in the lowest departments, partook of the care and energy of the sovereign; but in the last, influenced by those mean and often base and unworthy affections which accompany human nature on a throne as well as in a cottage, they committed the administration to favourites without merit or experience; and the incapacity of the first mover pervaded and paralysed the whole state machine.[s]

The vast extension of the Turkish empire was another cause of its decline. It multiplied the enemies, not the subjects of the state. To animate all the various and discordant classes of people comprehended in its widely extended limits with the same spirit, and to give them one common interest, would have required an intimate acquaintance with the science of government, and the adoption of a liberal and enlarged system of policy. But to act in this manner was utterly repugnant to the maxims of the Ottoman legislators. Submission to their power averted the stroke of death, but nothing short of embracing the religion of the Prophet could save the vanquished from extortion and slavery. "The conquered people," says Mr. Thornton, "if they obstinately refused the offer of conversion, became, together with their possessions, their industry, and their children, virtually the property of their masters. *Their substance*, says the law, *is as our substance, their eye as our eye, their life as our life.* In such a state of subjection, their claim to justice and protection

[s] Volney's Considerations on the War with the Turks.

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was little better than an empty sound, and their lives and fortunes were made subservient to the necessities of the state, and the interests of the superior and privileged class, who strove by every means, however rigorous and insulting to their feelings, to suppress instead of exciting their energies, to debilitate their minds to the level of slavery, and to insure their submission to the forms of government established by themselves."†

"All the officers of government," says the same accurate and well-informed writer, "owe their appointment to the sole favour of the Sultan, without respect to birth, talents, services, or experience. They are deposed or punished without the liberty of complaint or remonstrance; and at their death, the Sultan inherits their property. Such is the constitution of arbitrary power; but the immediate appointment must necessarily be confined within the narrow circle of his personal acquaintance, which scarcely extends beyond the limits of the palace; the nomination to offices is consequently delegated to his ministers and favourites. It is a fact, of public notoriety, that governments of every description are openly sold at the Porte; they are held for the term of one year only, and at the ensuing *bairam*, the leases must be renewed or transferred to a less parsimonious competitor. In the public registers, the precise value of every important post under government is recorded; and the regular remittance of the taxes and tribute is the only acknowledged criterion of upright administration. If the stipulated revenue duly enters into the coffers of government, no inquiry is made whether it has been collected by harsh or by lenient measures,—whether it has been extorted by tyranny and oppression from a wretched and diminished population, or willingly contributed from the superabundance of private wealth, as an homage to virtuous administration. When the inhabitants of a city or province are dissatisfied with the Pacha, they present their complaints in a petition at the Porte;

† Present State of Turkey, vol. II. p. 60.

but unless they accompany it with a larger sum than the Pacha finds it convenient to give for his appointment, they seldom succeed in their application for his removal. Contestations of this public nature, as well as those between private individuals, are determined, not by the evidence of facts, or the force of argument, but by *the specific quantity of gold which either party can produce in support of his cause.*"[u]

When a Pacha thinks he can establish his independence by his wealth or his troops, he rebels,—that is, he sends no remittances to the Porte; and if the Sultan cannot subdue him by force, a sort of contest in cunning takes place between them,—the Sultan trying to assassinate the Pacha, the latter to destroy the assassin. It is not uncommon for the Sultan to send an executioner with orders, that, in the event of his not being able to effect the destruction of the Pacha, he should load him with additional honours! By these means, suspicion is not unfrequently lulled asleep; and the Pacha is rendered an easier prey to that inextinguishable thirst for revenge which can never be appeased, except by the blood of those who have presumed to contemn the authority of the vicegerent of the Prophet.

The licentiousness and want of discipline that prevails amongst the soldiery, is another cause of the low state of the Turkish power. The Janizaries, from their great services and reputation, their peculiar privileges, their being constantly near the person of the sovereign, and their union under one commander, were early inspired with high notions of their own importance; and from their station in the capital during the intervals of foreign war, they acquired a preponderating influence in domestic affairs. Their insolence and pretensions occasioned considerable uneasiness to the ablest Sultans during the zenith of their power; and sagacious observers had then remarked, that it was most probable, should the empire fall into feebler hands, that the Janizaries would perform the same part at Con-

[u] Present State of Turkey, pp. 162 and 185.

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stantinople that the Pretorian bands had done at Rome.[x] This conjecture has been to a considerable extent verified. The disorders among the Janizaries have increased according as the ancient strictness and severity of their discipline has been relaxed; and they have repeatedly insulted the majesty of the throne, and even imbrued their hands in the blood of their monarchs.

The Sultans seem to have been aware, for a considerable period, that the inferiority of their troops to those of the European nations with whom they have had to contend, has resulted chiefly from the inferiority of their tactics, and the laxity of their discipline; and several vigorous efforts have been made to introduce the warlike system of the Europeans, and to reform or abolish the Janizaries.—But difficulties, that seem to be insuperable, oppose all such projects. The Turkish government is founded entirely on the principles and dogmas of the Mahometan religion. It contains within itself no principle of improvement; and cannot be easily accommodated to any species of reform. The Sultan, and some of the principal officers of his court, may become sensible of the necessity of changing the organization and discipline of the army, and of reforming some of the abuses that paralyse all the energies of government; but their efforts to accomplish such objects can hardly fail to appear to the great majority of their subjects as unhallowed attempts to subvert principles established by ancient usage, in conformity with the unalterable precepts of the Koran; and it is difficult to suppose how, under such circumstances, they can be successful. We therefore have very little expectation that the attempts of the present Sultan to remodel the military force of the empire will have any better fate than those of his predecessors, Mustapha, Selim, &c., who paid with their lives the forfeit of their rashness, in presuming to interfere with institutions sanctioned by the will of the Prophet! We are not in possession of any accounts that can be relied on con-

[x] Robertson's Charles V. vol. I. p. 475.

cerning the events that have lately taken place relative to the suppression of the Janizaries. But with such a mass of deep-rooted religious prejudices to encounter, we should be sanguine indeed, if we supposed that any considerable reform could take place, without the intervention of such a revolution as would change the whole constitution, and perhaps, even the religion of the empire. So long as the Turkish government continues to exist on its present footing, so long will the Pachas continue, as they have hitherto done, to pillage and waste the provinces. The Sultan will in his turn strangle and then plunder the Pachas. The Turks will be exclusively actuated by pride and fanaticism, their vassals by hatred and revenge. Their generals will oppose brute force to science and military skill; and every abuse will be aggravated until this incoherent fabric of despotism and superstition fall a sacrifice to intestine commotion or foreign aggression.

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TABLE.

The divisions of European Turkey according to Hadgi-Khalfa and Hisar-Fenn, compared with those of Ricaut and Marsigli.

A. ADJACENT PROVINCES.

I. Ejalet Roumili. *(Country of the Romans.)*[y]

Sangiacs. [z]	*Corresponding Divisions.*	*Names of Towns.*
Istambol and Edrenih capitals. [a]	Thrace or Romania.	Istambol, (Constantinople.) Edrenih (Adrianople.)
1. Wisa.	Idem, eastern part.	Wisa.
2. Kirkkilissa.	Idem, id.	Kirkkilissa. Borgas.
3. Silistra.	Bulgaria, Dobrudscha, &c.	Silistra. Brailow. Schumla.
4. Nicopoli.	Central Bulgaria.	Nicopoli. Roustchouk. Giurgewe.
5. Widin.	Western Bulgaria.	Widin.
6. Sofia.	South of Bulgaria and Western Thrace.	Sofia. Filibe (Philippopolis.) Eski-Sagra. Nischa (Nissa.)
7. Tschirmen.	Thrace, northern part.	Tchirmen. Ieni-Sagra.

[y] The vizier, pacha, and beylerbey of Romelia, who enjoys the title of Roumily-Valicy, or lieutenant of the Sultan in Romelia, holds commonly his court at Sophia. He has lately chosen Monastir or Bitolia for his head-quarters against the Greeks. Schumla was selected for the same purpose against the northern powers. He may fix his residence in any part of his dominions.

[z] Sandjak or Sangiac, means literally a banner. The office of pacha is not limited by special functions; hence the uncertainty of the limits of the pachaliks, which vary according to their military force.

[a] Places of administration without any other sangiac or banner than that of the Sultan.

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8. Kostendil.	Macedonia, north-east.	Kostendil. Ostromdscha. Vrana.
9. Uskub.	Idem, north-west.	Uskub.
10. Salonik.	Idem, centre. [b]	Salonick. Karaferia. Vodina. Sirus (Serres.)
11. Tirhala.	Thessaly.	Tirhala. Ienischer (Larissa.)
12. Janina. [c]	Epirus.	Janina Narda (Arta.)
13. Delonia.	Epirus.	Delonia (Delvino.)
14. Aulona. [d]	Idem, and part of middle Albania.	Aulona. Tebelen. Berat (Arnaouth Belgrade.)
15. Ochrida.	Inland Macedonia.	Ochrida. Mat. Alescho. [e]
16. Ilbessan.	Central Albania.	Ilbessan. Duradsch.
17. Iskendria.	Upper Albania.	Iskenderia (Scutari, Scodra.) Olgun (Dulcigno.) Bar (Antivari.)

[b] The districts of Monastir or Bitolia, Kesria, (Castorca) Servidche, Ostrova, and some others included in the Sangiac or government of Salonik and Ochri, are dependencies of the sangiac of the Captain Pacha. It is impossible to reconcile the accounts of the Turkish geographers with the existence of the sandjak of Roumily Valicy.

[c] The Sandjac of Karli-Ili, (Acarnania) although marked by Hadgi-Khalfa, appears to have been abolished.

[d] Mouchtar, son of Ali-Pacha, although only bey of Musachi, a district in which Berat is the chief town, obtained the title of Beylerbey, and ruled over the whole government. Ibrahim, his father-in-law, was prisoner in the hands of Ali; but the systems of the Turkish geographers need not be changed on account of these temporary usurpations.

[e] The district of the Mirdites is in reality a dependence of Ochrida and not of Ilbessan or Elbessan; but so long as Ali lived, he obtained troops from the district.

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Divisions of European Turkey continued.

18. Dukagin.	Upper Albania.	Dukagin. Ipak. (Pekia.)[f]
19. Perserin.	Idem.	Perserin (Prisrendi.)
20. Veldschterin.	Upper Servia, west.	Veldschterin. Pristina. Nova Berda.
21. Aladschahissar.	Idem, east.	Aladscha-Hissar. Orkub.
22. Semendra.	Lower Servia.	Belgrade. Semendra. Ussitza.

II. Ejalet Bosna. *(Country of Bosnia.)*

23. Banyaluka.	Turkish Croatia.	Banyaluka. Bosna-Sarai.
24. Trawnik.	Central Bosnia.	Trawnik.
25. Srebernik.	Western Bosnia.	Srebernik.
26. Iswornik.	Bosnia, north-east.	Isworník (Zwornik.)
27. Ienibazar.	Rascia.	Ienibazar (Novi-Bazar.)
28. Hersek.	Turkish Dalmatia.	Mostar. Trebigni.[g]

[f] The northern limits of these governments are not known.

[g] It is very difficult to fix the limits of the governments or *sandgiacats* in Bosnia. Hadgi-Khalfa mentions besides, Klis and Kirka, but these include Austrian Dalmatia. The Sangiacs are pachas *in partibus infidelium*. The beylerbey of Bosnia retains the title of beylerbey of Buda in Hungary.

M. Desfossés marks the divisions, or rather classifies the functionaries in the following manner: 1st, the beylerbey residing at Trawnik; 2d and 3d, two pachas residing near him, but who are not attached to any sangiacat; 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th, the pachas commanding the sangiacats of Banyaluka, Srebernitza, Jeni-Bazar, and Trebigni (Hersek). The last four appointments are at the disposal of the beylerbey; 8th and 9th, the pachas nominated by the Porte over Posavina or Iswornik and Klissa, now transferred to Scopia. If Desfossés be compared with Hadgi-Khalfa, it will be found that they agree as to the number of sangiacs, with the exception of two, those over Trawnik and Kirka, but probably the two pachas residing at Trawnik may claim the rank without holding the title of sangiacs. The geographical divisions depend on the number of these governors.

III. Ejalet Morah. *(Country of the Morea.)*

29. Tripolitza.	Peloponnesus, centre, north and east.	Tripolitza, Anaboli (Napoli di Romania.)
30. Mistra.	Laconia and Messenia.	Misitra. Korun. Mengesche. (Monembasia.)

IV. Ejalet Dschesair. *(Country of the Islands and Coasts.)*

31. Galiboli.	Southern Thrace.	Galliboli (Gallipoli. Rodostchik (Rodostus.)
32. Egribos.	Euboea, Beotia,	Egribos. Isdin (Zeitun.)
	Phocis, &c.	Istifa (Thebes.) Atina.[i]
33. Ainabacht.	Western Hellade.	Ainabachti (Lipanto.) Missolunghi.
34. Midillii.	Mitylene, &c.	Midillii (Castro.)
a. Il Midillii.	Lesbos or Mitylene.	
b. Muskonisi.	Hecalonesi.	
c. Taschos.	Thasos.	Same name.
d. Samadrek.	Samothrace.	Idem.
e. Imrus.	Imbros.	Idem.
f. Lymia.	Lemnos.	Lemno. Cochino.
g. Skopelo.	Skopelos.	Same name.
h. Schkiri.	Scyros.	Idem.
35. Andra.	Northern Cyclades.	
a. Andra.	Andros.	Arna.
b. Istendil.	Tine.	St. Nicolo.
c. Mykoni.	Mycone.	Same name.
d. Ilegi.	Delos.	
e. Syra.	Same name.	Asprana.
f. Thermia.	Same name.	Same name.

[h] See below the divisions according to M. Pouqueville.

[i] Athens was a fief attached to the office of chief of the eunuchs, and under the military protection of the sangiac of Egribos.

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	g. Morted.	Ceos or Zia.	Zia.
	h. Djamlidsi.	Hydrea.	Hydra.
	36. Nakscha.	Southern Cyclades.	
	a. Nakscha.	Naxos.	Nakscha.
	b. Bara.	Paros.	Parichia.
	c. Amorgo.	Amorgos.	Amorgo.
	d. Istampolia.	Astypalæa.	P. St. Andrew.
	e. Nanfi.	Namphi.	
	f. Dgirmenlik.	Santorini.	Megalo-Chorio. Pyrgos.
	g. Nio.	Nios.	Nio.
	h. Sikino.	Siegnus.	
	i. Polikandro.	Polycandros.	
	k. Milo.	Melos.	Milo.
	l. Kimoli.	Cimolis.	Argentiera.
	m. Siphno.	Siphnus.	
	n. Serf.	Seriphus.	

V. Ejalet Kirid or Kandia. *(Country of Crete.)*

37. Kandia.	The centre and east.	Kandia.
38. Retimo.	The west.	Retimo.
39. Kanca.	Idem.	Canea. Sudi. Kissamo.

B. INTERMEDIATE PROVINCES.

1. Wallachia.	Subdivisions into *Zinutz*.	Towns. (Wallachian names.)
a. Great Wallachia.		
1. Zara of Schoss. (Lowland.)	Ilfowul.	Bukarescht.
	Ialomitza.	Slodbosja.
	Slam-Rimnik.	Fokschani.
	Busco.	Busco.
	Sekuriani.	Waleni.
	Braowa.	Ployest.
2. Zara of Suss. Highlands.	Dumbowitza.	Tirgowist.
	Wlascha.	
	Teleorman.	Ruschy-Wede.
	Mustchiel.	Kimpolung.
	Ardschis.	Kurte of Ardschisch.
	Oltul.	Slatina.

b. Little Wallachia.	Dolschi, or Schiul of Schoss.[k]	Krayowa.
	Romunazi.	Islas.
	Wultscha.	Rimnik.
	Gorzy, or Schiul of Suss.[k]	
	Mchedinz.	

II. Moldavia.

1. Zara of Schoss.	Jassy.	Same name.
	Karligatura.	Tirgul-Formos.
	Roman.	Same name.
	Waslui.	Idem.
	Falschi.	Idem.
	Kohuslui.	Galatch.
	Tekutsch.	Same name.
	Putna.	
	Tutow.	
2. Zara of Suss.	Dorohoe.	Same name.
	Botoschani.	Idem.
	Harlew.	Idem.
	Niamts.	Idem.
	Bakaw.	Idem

CHRISTIAN KINGDOMS OF BOSNIA AND SERVIA DIVISIONS.

Kingdom of Servia in the eleventh century.

1. Servia Proper on the Danube. Duchy of Mazovia in 1271.
2. Romania, or Eastern Servia.

3. Rascia.	County of Chelm or Zachlumia in the thirteenth century.
4. Dioclea.	
5. Terbunia.	Duchy of St. Saba, in the fifteenth century.
6. Zachlumia.	Hertzegovina, or Turkish Hersek.

7. A small part of Dalmatia.

Kingdom of Bosnia, thirteenth century.

A. Bosnia Proper.

1. Province of Czernik.	Sangiac of Banyalouka.
2. ——— Modritza.	
3. ——— Ussora.	
4. ——— Krakowo.	

[k] Dolschi and Gorzy are evidently Slavonic words, the first is derived from *dol*, a valley, the second from *gora*, a mountain. *Suss* in Wallachian corresponds with the sursum of the Latins. *Schoss (sub)* is a root common to the Wallachian, Slavonic and Gothic.

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5. ——— High Sala. } Sangiac of Bosna-Serai, (Trawnik,) and Srebernik.
6. ——— Low Sala.
7. ——— Varosch.
8. ——— Posavina. Sangiac of Swornik.
9. ——— Suitava. } On the south-east of Bosna Serai.
10. ——— Podrina.

B. UPPER BOSNIA, CALLED IN 1103, THE KINGDOM OF RAMA.

1. Seigniory of Chulm, (Zachlumia Proper. See above.)
2. ——— Banno.
3. ——— Clinovo (Captaincy of Hliuno or Livno, Hertzegovina.)
4. ——— Cettina, (in Austrian Dalmatia.)
5. ——— Gliubuski (Captaincy of Laubouchka, in Hertzegovina.)
6. ——— Nevesik (Captaincy of Nevesign, Idem.)
7. ——— Narentva (Mostar.)
8. ——— Verbosania.
9. ——— Gliubina.
10. ——— Rudina.
11. ——— Trebigna. (Terbunia, see above. Captaincy of the same name.)

Table of the Divisions of the Morea according to M. Pouqueville.[l]

Ancient Divisions.	Modern Districts.	Number of Villages.	Value of Agricultural produce in 1814.
			Piasters.
Corinthia, Syconia, Epidauria, &c.	Corinth.	111	2,725,000
Western Argolis.	Argos.	23	1,519,000
Eastern Argolis, Trezinia, Hermione.	Naupli.	33	1,230,000
Cynuria.	San Petro.	20	985,000
Central Laconia.	Misitra.	118	2,998,000
Laconia, eastern coast.	Monembasi.	54	237,000
Laconia, south-west.[m]	Country of Magna.	104	1,450,000
	Carried over,	463	11,144,000

[l] Tome III. p. 491—494; tome V. p. 23—26, 176.

[m] M. Pouqueville compares the country of Magna with Eleuthero-Laconia, but that division comprehended all the towns of the *Periœci* (circum-habitantes,) who during the war of the Romans against the Spartans joined the former, and as a reward for their revolt, were declared independent of Sparta.

Table of the divisions of the Morea continued.

Ancient Divisions.	Modern Districts.	Number of Villages.	Value of Agricultural produce in 1814.
			Piasters.
	Brought over,	463	11,144,000
Messenia.	Calamata.	10	1,732,500
Id.	Imlakia.	37	
Id.	Androussa.	87	1,988,500
Id.	Coron.	76	412,000
Id.	Modon.	54	393,000
Id.	Navarin.	36	362,300
Triphylia, &c.	Arcadia.	106	1,767,000
Elis.	Gastouni.[n]	114	5,793,500
Western Achaia.	Patras.	94	1,689,500
Eastern Achaia.	Vostitza.	25	1,486,000
Areadia, north.	Calavryta.	95	
Arcadia, east.	Tripolitza.	77	2,027,000
Id. west and centre.	Caritene.	130	2,692,900
Id. south-west.	Leondari.	18	773,600
		1422	32,201,800[o]

Table of the Population in European Turkey according to M. Hassel, (1823.)

A. POPULATION IN EACH PROVINCE.

	German Square Miles.[p]	Inhabitants.	For each German Square Mile.
Roum Ili,	4776	5,543,000	1160
Bosna,	1062	560,000[q]	527
Morah,	402	790,000[r]	1963
Dschesair,	1079	907,000	840

These towns, twenty-four in number at the time that Augustus made them free, were situated round the sea coasts of Laconia, and not exclusively on Mount Taygetus.

[n] Lala, a village inhabited by a horde of Albanian banditti, has been taken by the Greeks; it is included in the villages of Gastouni.

[o] The taxes and contributions levied in the Morea amount to 12,808,045 piasters; of that sum four millions are set apart for the Vizier and a two tailed pacha at Naupli.

[p] The German mile varies in different countries and in different parts of the Austrian empire; it is in some places equal to four English miles, on that supposition, the German square mile is equal to sixteen English square miles; but in other places it amounts only to 3 + ½ English miles, and the square mile is therefore equal to 11 + ½ English square miles.

[q] M. Liechtenstein calculates the population at 900,000 individuals, of whom two-thirds are of Slavonic origin.

[r] The Morea, since it has shaken off the yoke, has become a place of refuge for the Macedonian Greeks. The numbers, however, may be overrated.

BOOK C.

Table of the Population in European Turkey continued.

	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants.	For each German Square Mile.
(European part.)			
Kirid, .	188	270,000	1436
Wallachia and Moldavia,	2100	1,400,000	666
	9607	9,470,000	6592

a. *Primitive Inhabitants.*

Hellenes, . . .	3,090,000
Slaves, ...	1,440.090[s]
Arnauts, . . .	460,000[t]
Wallachians, . . .	1,375,000
	6,365,090

b. *Foreigners.*

Osmanlis or Turks, . .	2,350,000
Tartars, . . .	275,000
Abadiotes, . . .	4,000
Armenians, . . .	85,000
Jews, ...	312,000
Zigeunes or Gypsies, . .	80,000[u]
Franks, ...	5,000
	3,111,000

C. POPULATION ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT WORSHIPS.

Mussulmans, . . .	2,889,000
Greek Christians, . .	5,880,000
Catholics, . . .	310,000
Armenians, . . .	85,000
Jews, ...	312,000

I believe that M. Hassel and his guides have estimated the inhabitants of Bosnia and Servia too low by a half; and it is likely that the Slavonic population, (including the Wallachians or Bulgaro-Slavo-Wallachians of Pindus,) is at least equal to two millions.

[t] The number of Arnauts or Albanians cannot be less than 700,000.

[u] The above estimate is too low by more than a third. The gypsies are thickly scattered on Mount Hemus and Scardus.

Table of the Population in European Turkey continued. BOOK C.

D. RESPECTIVE NUMBERS OF THE OSMANLIS AND HELLENES.

	Hellenes.	Osmanlis.
Roum,	1,640,000	1,806,000
Bosna,		157,000
Morah,	710,000	50,000
Dschesair, (Europe.)	600,000	200,000
Kirid,	141,600	124,000
Wallachia and Moldavia,		5,000

Table of the Ottoman armies according to M. Hammer.[x]

Infantry, 100,000 men, namely,

Ienidescheri, (Janizaries, two hundred *ordas*,)	80,000
Dgebedgis, (armourers,)	6,000
Topdschis, (matrosses,)	10,000
Top-Arabadschi in the train of Artillery,	3000
Koumbaradschi, (bombardiers)	600
Lagoumdschi, (miners)	400

* Nisami Dgedid, regular new troops, (lately suppressed) 24,000.

Regular cavalry, 24,000, namely,

Sipahis, horsemen,	11,000
Silihdars, horse police,	11,000
Ouloufedschiani, mercenaries,	1,000
Gouroubai, foreigners,	1,000

Irregular feudal cavalry, 100,000.

Standing army in time of peace, 79,500.[y]

[x] M. Hammer mentions only the number of troops paid and maintained by the Porte ℘ to his table ought to be added the forces which each pacha and several provinces support. Thus, the Vizier of Egypt, if his Negro and Arab regiments be included, has an army of 30,000 soldiers.

Servia must furnish 12,000 men. Bosnia has its provincial troops.

[y] M. de Hammer, Etat de l'Empire Turc, II. p. 273.

BOOK CI.

EUROPE.

Description of Europe continued. Hungary and its appendages; physical geography, &c.

BOOK CI.

Introduction.

We pass from the soil of barbarism and the crescent to a country whose inhabitants participate in the blessings of Christianity and European civilization. Different nations are united in Hungary round the ancient cross of St. Stephen,—the *Magiars* came thither on their swift horses from the banks of the Wolga,—the *Slowak* descended from the Carpathian mountains or Norican Alps,—the Germans and Wallachian shepherds advanced along the Danube;—all of European origin, although distinguished by their national and picturesque costumes, all Christians, although differing from each other in their rites and observances. Transylvania is governed by independent laws, and composed of the same civil and religious elements, they cannot therefore be considered apart. Croatia and Dalmatia, it is true, belong to a different *physical section*, but in a science so much connected with history as geography, systematic arrangements must give place to common divisions, and small portions of land must be annexed to great masses in a way best adapted to assist the memory of the reader. It is necessary for these reasons to include in one and the same description, the Carpathian or Krapack mountains, that surround the vast plain, which forms the principal part of Hungary, and in which the Danube appears

to stand still in the midst of its course, Transylvania, that comprehends three great vallies on the east of that plain, between the branches of the Carpathian range, Slavonia on the west between the Drave and the Save, Croatia, which is still more remote, and joins the extremities of the Julian Alps, and lastly Dalmatia, that descends to the shores of the Adriatic. Some account shall be first given of the physical geography of these provinces.

Mountains.

The Carpathian range extends along a semicircular line of 200 leagues, it does not form a chain but rather a table-land crowned with isolated groups, connected in many parts by small chains, and bounded on the north-west and south-east by a number of mountains.[a]

Carpathian Proper.

Those on the north-west are the *Carpathian Proper*, or *Crapack*, the others on the south-east are the same as the Bastarnian or Dacian Alps. If the narrative of M. Beudant, a distinguished French geologist, be combined with the remarks of M. Kitaibel, a Hungarian botanist,[b] several groups, chains, and detached hills not unlike forelands, may be discovered in the first section.

Tatra.

The group of Tatra is more elevated than any of the rest, its summits reach to the height of 8,000 feet, it extends from east to west, and rises abruptly on the east above the plains of Kesmark, and the sandy mountains that separate Hungary from eastern Galicia. It is situated between the Poprad, which rises in the south, and turns suddenly to the north, the *Dunajec* that takes its source in the north, and the *Waag* and the Arva that separate it on the south and the west from the neighbouring mountains. Two groups to the north-west of the last, form the natural limits between Hungary, Galicia and Moravia. One of them, the *Baszkid*, rises between the rivers Arva, Waag, *Kiszucza* and the sources of the Vistula, the other or the *Ia-*

[a] Voyage en Hongrie par Beudant, tom. I. p. 21—26. The *carte geognostique* in the atlas by the same author, is a valuable addition to the work.

[b] Topographical description of Hungary. Prefixed to the work Comitis Waldstein, &c. et Pauli Kietaibel, M. D. Descriptiones et Icones plantarum rariorum Hungariæ, Vol. I. Vienna, 1802.

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vornik[c] passes in a south-west direction from the Kiszucza to Presburg, they are separated from each other by the defiles of *Jablunka*.

All the mountains abounding in mines from the Waag or Vag to the vicinity of Kaschau, are termed in Hungary the *Fatra*, but the same name is applied to the mountain of Kœnigsberg and its continuations, and to two others, the great Fatra on the confines of Thurocz and Liptau, and the little Fatra in the county of Arva. It might be better if the districts and mountains were marked by geographical limits. A small chain extends in the direction of north-east to south-west from Predmir to Freystadt, and is enclosed by the Vag, the Nyitra and the Thurocz. Another range parallel to the last, rises between the Nyitra and the Gran, commences at Nyitra, and terminates at Kremnitz; it consists of three small groups, of which the *Klak* is the most remarkable The chain, strictly termed the Fatra, is situated between Rosenberg and Neusohl. A range extending from west to east from *Prossiva* to *Kralova-hora* in a direction parallel to the Tatra, between the Vag and the Gran, has been called the Alps of Liptau by the German inhabitants. It appears to be connected with a number of mountains between the Sajo and the Hernat, which flows in the plains of Leutchau. Many mountains, that make up so great a number of detached groups as to render every attempt to classify them very difficult, are situated in the south, on the left of the Gran, and terminate at the banks of the Sajo and the Ipoli, which run in contrary directions, the one to the east, the other to the west. M. Beudant mentions some of them. "Mount *Polanaberg* is the centre of the first; another is attached to Mount *Vepor*, a third is enclosed by the Rima, the Sajo and eastern part of the Gran; a fourth rises between the higher banks of the Sajo, the Hernat and the Bodva; a fifth between the lower Sajo and the Bodva." It must be a hard task to recollect all these divisions, more particularly as the geologist has not thought it neces-

The Fatra.

Alps of Liptau.

[c] See the Maps of Lipsky and Liechtenstern.

sary to name one of them. The Szisna or the sixth, corresponds with "the group of *Schemnitz* between the Gran, the *Szlatina* and *Krupina*." [d] *Ostroky* is the centre of the seventh between the Krupina and the Ipoly; there the districts on the south of the Ipoly, and the Sajo are lower, and several hills, none of which are very high, may be observed on the large vallies watered by these rivers. Other hills, on the left of the Ipoly where it winds from west to south, before it joins the Danube, terminate at *Nagyszal*, which commands the town of Waitzen. A group, of which the mountains of *Cserhat* and *Karancs* are a part, is situated between the Ipoly and Zagyva, and extends to the right of the Rima and the Sajo. The Matra is detached from all of them, and rises suddenly to a great height above the plain bounded by the Zagyva and the Tarna. The small mountainous district between the Tarna and the Sajo, has been called *Osztra* or *Buk-Hegy*. [e]

Hegy-Allya.

"An extensive and distinct group," says M. Beudant, "extends in the direction of north to south from Eperies to Tokay, between the Hernat, the Topla and the Bodrog, and is encompassed on every side by vast plains." We have found, by referring to the map, that the author means what might be more correctly termed a chain than a group, the *Hegy-Allya* or lower mountains, the southern sides of which are covered with the finest vines in Europe. *Fekety-Hegy* is higher than any of the rest, and the hills of Tokay form the south-east extremity. A detached group, that of *Vihorlet*, rises on the plains to the north of the Hegy-Allya, in front of the sandy mountains or limits of eastern Gallicia, and is surrounded by the Laborcza and the Ungh.

Lowering of the Carpathian mountains.

It is difficult to determine whether or not the Carpathian range is separated from the Transylvanian Alps, or if Hungary is bounded on the north north-east by a low ridge above Gallicia; but historical and political conside-

[d] Hassel, volst. Handbuch. vol. II. p. 492.

[e] *Buk*, a beach, and *Hegy*, a hill or mountain.

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rations of the highest importance depend on the solution of that problem in physical geography. If Hungary is of easy access on that side, the Goths, (particularly the Visigoths,) the Sarmatians and the Huns might have penetrated by this way, as well as by others into Europe. The Rousniacs might, in like manner, have migrated to Hungary, and the Magiar obtained an easy entrance into his new possessions. If the Carpathian mountains are so low, where is the bulwark of the Austrian empire? The numerous armies of Russia cannot be confined by imaginary Alps. It may be worth while to examine the statements of two ocular and contradictory witnesses.

Opinion of M. Beudant.

"The sandy hills or the limits of eastern Gallicia, form a sort of *talus* or regular declivity from one extremity to the other, but they are broken by low and gradually sloping ridges, which in many places may be confounded with the plains. The peaks and rocks that rise from the sand in different parts of the range, indicate a continuation of the Transylvanian Alps on one side, and the heights of Tatra on the other. The two great masses of mountains in Hungary and Transylvania may be compared to two citadels at the entrance of an immense gulf. The hills on the north-east between them are much lower, their greatest height not being equal to half the elevation of the others, their summits are rounded, they are not difficult of ascent, almost all of them are composed of fine sand more or less consolidated. The opening betwixt the lofty mountains, by which the plains of Hungary might have at one time communicated with those of Poland, has for many ages been blocked by alluvial and arenaceous deposits." [f]

Opinion of M. Kitaibel.

"The Tatra mountains are comparatively low on the eastern side, near the valley by which the Poprad descends into Gallicia." The same author describes in a different part of his work, the mountains on the north-east in the counties of Ungh, Beregh and Marmarosch. "They ex-

[f] Beudant, Voyage en Hongrie, p. 23.

tend eastwards from the river of Latorcza, intersect in different directions the district of Marmarosch, and like others in Beregh, are little lower than the Alps. The mountains of *Bersava* or *Polonyina* tower above the rest. The traveller, who wishes to observe the connexion between the different groups, must ascend Mount *Cuttin*, which is not far from Kapnyk-Banya, and from its top the view is most extensive. I observed distinctly all the mountains in Marmarosch, but those which mark the boundaries of Gallicia and Bukowine appeared to me still more elevated. The mountains of *Pop-Ivan*, *Farky*, *Czerna-Hora*, *Homrel*, *Qusky* and *Pietrosa*, are as lofty as the heights of Tatra; but they are not so steep, nor covered with so many bare and huge rocks, they rest on a broader base, their summits are not so sharp or pointed." [g]

It is not easy to reconcile these varying testimonies. The measurement of the *Snizny-Kamen* by Wahlenberg is by no means a proof that the sinking is general, and the height of the Pietrosa, (if it be accurately measured,) tends to confirm the opposite opinion. M. Beudant, in his zeal to correct the errors of geographers, may have fallen into others of a different kind, and the depression of the Carpathian ridge may not extend beyond the counties of Saros and Zemplin; it rises to the east of these districts, and although perhaps less elevated than the Tatra range, forms an uninterrupted continuation of the Transylvanian Alps.

Transylvanian mountains.

The mountains in Transylvania consist of well-marked chains near different groups that cannot be so easily defined. A great number are situated at the eastern extremity, and from them, the Maros, the Kukullo, the Aluta, the Szasmos, the Moldavian Bisztritz and the Moldava derive their source. The elevation of the hills is not in general proportionate to their breadth. A detached chain extends westwards, near the Szamos and the Theiss, in that part of the country where the frontiers of Hungary, Transylvania and Bukowine meet; its summits are lofty and probably

[g] Kitaibel, p. 4—8.

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none of them more so than the *Rosaly*. Another and a greater chain, divided by the Aluta, bounds Transylvania and Wallachia; the highest mountains are perhaps situated in this range, they have not however as yet been measured with sufficient accuracy; the western extremity or the mountains of the Bannat are apparently connected by steep rocks, which impede the course of the Danube to the base of the heights in Servia.

Mountains of the Bannat.

Such are the summits that form an irregular curve on the eastern and southern frontiers of Transylvania; the central districts are lower; almost all the rocks in that part of the country are arenaceous, and rich in salt mines; the rivers that descend from them roll fragments of gold. The ridge, intersected by several small chains, rises to a considerable height above Lower Hungary, and forms on the west two mountainous ranges. The first is situated near the western branch of the Szasmos, the sources of the Kraszna, the Bereltyo, and the Rapid Kœrœs; it includes the *Bihary-Hegy*, the *Czaf*, the *Vaskho*, and many other distinct groups. The second extends between the Maros on the south, and the Aranyos on the north; the White Kœrœs rises from it, the principal mountains are the *Gaina*, and the *Kladowa*, and it terminates at the *Villagos*; but the country that separates Transylvania and Lower Hungary is imperfectly known; Kitaibel compares it to the Carpathian districts.

Intermediate mountains.

Two branches of the Styrian Alps penetrate into Hungary on the west, the one in the direction of the north-west comprehends the *Bakony* mountains on the north of Lake Balaton, and ends at Mount *Pilicz* near the Gran; the other follows the course of the Drave towards the south-east, is almost lost on the plain of Slavonia, rises in Syrmia, and forms the picturesque hills of Fruska-Gora.

Western mountains.

The Julian Alps commence in Carniola, intersect Hungarian Dalmatia and Croatia towards Venetian Dalmatia, and join the Albano-Dalmatian chain, a branch of Mount Hemus.

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Hungary contains two of the greatest plains in Europe; the one about forty leagues in length, and twenty-five in breadth, includes that part of western Hungary, bounded by the Austrian mountains on the west, those in the county of Nertia on the north, and the Bakony on the south-east; the other is about a hundred and twenty leagues long, and eighty broad, it forms lower Hungary, and a great part of it is a saline and sandy desert, limited by the Danube, the Theiss and immense marshes. The level of the low plain is not more than 140 feet above that of the sea; the other is supposed to be 31 feet higher, but it rises almost imperceptibly towards the countries which surround it, and is not subject like the former to oppressive and scorching heat. The greater plain may be compared to an African region; the eye is fatigued by a vast and unvarying horizon; the mirage produced by a burning sun mocks with its phantastic illusions the traveller, who is sometimes enveloped in total darkness by dense and noxious mists;—he may hear the lowing of cattle, grope for the hut of a shepherd, or wander among reeds and marshes. Plains.

The largest lakes in Hungary are the Balaton,[h] and the Neusiedel;[i] the first is situated between Szala and Sumegh; its greatest extent is about 48 miles from south-west to north-east, and its greatest breadth about nine miles, but in many places it is much narrower, and in some not more than two: it is almost blocked near its north-east extremity by a hilly peninsula which stretches out to the distance of a league beyond its banks. The surface of the Balaton and the surrounding marshes is not less than 24 German square miles, or 384 English square miles; its principal feeder is the Szala, but all the water it receives appears inconsiderable relatively to its superficial extent, and the quantity lost in evaporation. Thus there is no outlet for the lake; the Sio, which seems to issue from it, and enters the Danube, is in reality a marsh communicating with the south- Lakes.

[h] The Hungarian name is *Balaton-Tava*, the German, *Plattcn-See*.

[i] *Ferta-Tava* in Hungarian.

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ern bank, nor does it become a river until it receives the streams from the eastern mountains in the district of Sumegh.

Lake of Neusiedel.

The lake of Neusiedel lies between the counties of Ademburg and Wieselburg; it is about seventeen miles and a half in length from north to south, and although very narrow at the centre, it is more than seven in breadth near the two extremities; it is contiguous on the south to large marshes that extend eastwards, and after being increased with many streams, flow into the Raab. The evaporation at the surface of the lake and the marshes is perhaps nearly equal to the additions which they gain from different streams; at all events, the Raab is not so great a river as might be supposed from the number of its feeders. The water in the lake is medicinal, and contains in solution sulphate of soda.

The lake of Neusiedel is not the same as the Peiso of Pliny, the Pelso of Aurelius Victor, or the Pelsodes of Jornandes, in Pannonia Prima. The Emperor Galerius, it is said, partially drained the Peiso, and obtained, by cutting a canal between it and the Danube, a considerable tract of fertile land. No information relative to the position of the Neusiedel is to be found in the table of Peutinger, in the itineraries, or any ancient geographical work. A river called *Ferto* is mentioned in an act passed in 1339, and in another act, dated nearly about the same year, notice is taken of certain villages in the land now covered by the lake, and in its immediate vicinity. It is not unlikely from these facts, and others of the same kind, that it began to be formed in the tenth or eleventh century by the stagnation of river water, and by repeated inundations, for which there was no outlet.[k] The land in the neighbourhood of the Neusiedel sunk in 1725, and it has been affirmed that the water was not so salt or brackish before that time; it appeared in a state of ebulli-

[k] Bredetzky, Beytræge Zur Topographie, &c. Vol. III. Artic. II.

tion after an earthquake in 1763.[l] If the above hypothesis be correct, the site of the Pelso must be sought in a different part of the country. It has been stated by some writers that the traces of it may still be discovered between St. George and Landsitz; others, and their opinion is at least more probable, consider it the same as the Balaton, of which not more than a very small portion has been drained, and on that portion the marks of ancient and modern labour are discernible; besides, it cannot be supposed that the ancients were ignorant of so great a lake, neither can it be confounded with the *Ulkea* of Dion Cassius or the *Hiulkas* of Zozimus.[m]

It is not easy to distinguish the other lakes from the marshes that surround them; such is the Palics near Theresienstadt; "its depth is not less than 18 feet, and its hard and solid bed is covered with a layer of alkaline salt." Many others in the midst of the plain, although marked on the map are only morasses, the most of them are dry in summer.

Marshes.

Although the word *sea* in Hungarian is of Turkish importation, the language abounds in vocables that denote different kinds of marshes; if the surface of any is covered with a floating bed of aquatic plants, it is termed a *lap*, and those of which the lutulent soil is favourable to the growth of rushes and reeds are called *motsars*.[n]

Their extent.

The marshes in Hungary are very large, the most extensive are situated near the middle of the large plain, on the banks of the Theiss and the Danube, and in the wide vallies watered by the Savè and the Drave. The Baron of Liechtenstein considers the country rendered useless by the marshes not less than 300 square leagues, or 108 square German miles, or 1,732,800 English acres; his calculation, it has been since ascertained, is incorrect, the superficial extent is greater. Besides, as the banks of several rivers are very low, many parts of the vallies are

[l] Busching, Erdbeschreibung II. p. 360.

[m] Mannert's Greek and Latin Geography, p. 664.

[n] Kitaibel.

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covered after inundations with stagnant water. The inhabitants are anxious to diminish the number of marshes, it might be the means of obtaining not only an immense accession of rich land, but of protecting them against the noxious miasms so common in many districts where scurvy and intermittent fevers are prevailing diseases. The country subject to these malignant influences is greater than 300 square leagues, but more than 15,000 square leagues, or 135,000 square miles remain in the Hungarian states, and there the climate is as salubrious as that of Germany or France.[o]

Rivers, the Danube.

The Danube,[p] the second river in Europe, passes into Hungary at the burg of Deven, immediately after it is joined by the March or Morave; it is crowded with islands below Presburg, and divides itself into three branches, of which the greatest flows in an east south-east direction; the second and third form two large islands, and the second having received from the south the waters of the Laita and the Raab, unites with the first; the third, increased by the streams of the Waag, falls into the main channel at Komorn. More than a hundred eddies have been counted on the Vag or Waag within the distance of thirty-six miles. The Danube flows eastwards from the town of Raab, receives on the left the waters of the Ipoly and the Gran, and becomes narrower as it approaches the mountains between which it passes beyond Esztergom; it makes several sinuations round the rocks, reaches the burgh of Vartz, where it turns abruptly towards the south, and waters the base of the hills of St. Andrew and Buda. Its declivity from Ingoldstadt to Buda is not more than eight feet, the sudden change in its direction is determined by the position of the hills connected with Mount Czerath, and by the level of the great plain. The river expands anew in its course through the Hungarian plains, forms large islands, and passes through

o Beudant, I. p. 41. II. p. 146.

p *Donau* in German, *Duna* in Hungarian.

a country of which the inclination is not more than twenty inches in the league. Its banks are covered with marshes in the southern part of Pest, in the districts of Bacs and Tolna towards the confluence of the Drave. It extends in a southern direction to the frontiers of Slavonia, where the first hills in *Fruska-Gora* retard its junction with the Save; it then resumes its eastern course, winds round the heights, turns to the south-east, receives first the Theiss, then the Save at Belgrade, the Temes at Pantsova, and flows with greater rapidity to the base of the Servian mountains. Its bed is again contracted, its impetuous billows crowd on each other and escape by a narrow and steep channel, which they appear to have formed between the heights in Servia and the Bannat. It issues from the Hungarian states at New-Orsova; and, having crossed the barriers that oppose its passage, waters the immense plains of Wallachia and Moldavia, where its streams unite with the Black Sea. BOOK CI.

The Theiss, next to the Danube, the largest river in the kingdom, rises at the limits of Bukowine, crosses the vast marshes in the counties of Szathmas and Szabolcs, turns southwards after a circuitous course into the plains of Hungary, flows towards the Danube, and falls into it between Semlin and Peterwardin. The Theiss receives all the streams of Transylvania and the greater number of those from the northern mountains in Hungary. Among the first may be remarked the Szamos, that divides itself into two currents, the larger comes from the eastern mountains in the principality, and the Kœrœs, whose different branches, the Rapid, the Black and the White Kœrœs, rise from the range or boundaries between Transylvania and the county of Bihar. A considerable river is formed by their union, which, after having received all the streams from the western sides of the mountains on the frontiers of Transylvania, enters the Theiss opposite Czongrad. The country through which these rivers pass is very marshy; the Baron of Vay supposes the extent of land inundated by the The Theiss.

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Rapid Kœrœs only, not to be less than 55,000, and probably not more than 70,000 acres. The *Maros*[q] is also one of the large Hungarian rivers, it rises in the western mountains of Czik in Transylvania, receives the *Aranijos* and the two *Kukullos*[r] of which the sources are situated in the eastern part of the province, and joins the Theiss opposite Szegedin. The Bodrog increased by all the streams in the counties of Zemplen, Ungh and Beregh, enters it below Tokay. The *Hernat* too is a feeder of the same river, it rises in Zips, receives by the Tarczal all the waters in the district of Saros, and by the Sajo all the streams in the neighbourhood of Gomos and Torna. The Erlan and Zagyra convey to the Theiss the mountain torrents from Matra and Czerhat.

Thus a large river flows in the middle of the Hungarian plains. The Maros at its junction near Szegedin, is not less than 600 feet in breadth. The Theiss abounds in fish, and like the Maros, the Koros, the Szamos and the Bodrog, is navigable to a great distance. It might be wished that it were enlivened by an active commerce, but the low banks bounded by inaccessible marshes, hinder too frequently the communication from one place to another. Vessels cannot ascend the Theiss above Szegedin, boats may sail to Szigeth. Thus it can merely be said to communicate with the interior of Transylvania by means of the Maros which is navigable to Karlsburg. A low but dry plain separates the Theiss from the Danube, and the *French canal*, which has been cut across it, is about fifty-six miles in length; 1061 boats ply on it.

The Save.

The Save forms to a certain extent, the southern boundary of the Hungarian states. It rises from the mountains in Carniola, crosses Styria and enters Hungary near Zagrab; its feeders are the *Kulpa*, the *Unna*, the *Verbas*, the *Bosna* and the *Drina*, it overflows its banks from the inconsiderable inclination of its channel, and inundates the low plains that surround it, where the water remains stagnant

[q] *Mureschul* in Wallachian. [r] *Kuckol*, German, *Toernava*, Wallachian.

in many places throughout the year. Although a number of embankments have been raised in different parts of the country, these barriers are often borne down or rendered useless by the swelling of the river. The Save by which the grain and tobacco of Hungary are transported into Dalmatia and Italy, is navigable in the greatest part of its course. The boats ascend to Sziszeg, pass by the Kulpa to Carlstadt, and the produce is conveyed from the last town by land.

The Drave. The Drave rises in the Tyrol, flows in a south-east direction, and falls into the Danube below Eszeck. It may be considered the natural limit between Hungary and the two provinces of Croatia and Slavonia. The Mur, the principal feeder, passes to it from Styria. The course of the Drave is retarded beyond Legrad, and in Slavonia where the country is still more level, the streams are diffused on the vallies and form extensive marshes near its confluence.

One small river, the Poprad, refuses the Danube the tribute of its waters, it rises from the southern base of the mountains of Tatra in the district of Zips, and turns abruptly northwards to enlarge a feeder of the Vistula or the Dunajec, the sources of which are situated in Gallicia on the northern declivities of the Tatra.

The Aluta may be mentioned on account of its irregular course, it issues from the eastern mountains in Transylvania, crosses from north to south an Alpine valley, turns northwards to the frontiers of Kronstadt, changes its direction to the west, reaches the district of Hermanstadt, winds to the south, traverses Wallachia and falls into the Danube.

Climate of the mountains. The climate of Hungary varies according to the elevation of the soil. The Tatra mountains are always covered with snow; on several others, even on some in Transylvania, the snow remains to the month of July. The mountains in northern Hungary are not so high, but that region is exposed to the cold climate of the two lofty chains that approach it. Winter continues in all its rigour during six months of the year in the counties of Arva, Liptau and Zips on the north-west, and in Marmarosch

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on the north-east. Snow falls sometimes in September in these districts, and remains frequently till the first days in June; the corn is hardly in ear about the twentieth of the same month, it is ripe by that time on the plains. The climate may be said to a certain extent at least, to become milder in the ratio of the distance from the mountains. A curve drawn from Neitra by Hont to Karchau bounds the region where the oak, the beech, different fruit trees and corn begin to thrive. Another curve passing by Vacz, Gyongyos and Tokay, marks the climate where the vine appears in rich luxuriance, and where the fields are not exposed to the burning heat or the humid mists that rise from the lower plains. The elevation of these hills, which may be compared to verdant banks that surround a gulf of plains, is from 600 to 900 feet above the Black Sea.[s] The mountains that separate Transylvania from the vallies of lower Hungary, modify the temperature and render it more severe. Thus the wine in that part of the province is of inferior quality, although the level of Mediasch is not more than 666 feet, that of Schasburg 882 above the Black Sea, and the latitude, two degrees to the south of Tokay.

Climate of the hills.

Climate of the plains.

The higher plain is sheltered from excessive heat by the well-wooded chain of Bakony, its climate is mild, in many places salubrious, and its sides are covered with vineyards. But the large islands on the Danube between Presburg and Comorn, and the extensive marshes of Hansag on the east of lake Ferto occasion mists unwholesome to man, and hurtful to plants. The low plain or central and lower Hungary is wholly different as to climate. The heat is oppressive in the day time, the nights are cold and humid; exhalations rise from nitrous lands or water covered with plurites, dense and frequent mists are thus formed like those from the surface of a vast lake. The peasant in the middle of these boundless meadows, never sees a mountain, and wonders that fragments of ice are borne down by the Danube.

[s] Gyongyos is 581; Erlau, 675; the town of Tokay, 442.

The low plains are unhealthy, but not so much so as might have been inferred from the accounts of travellers. The general statement cannot be denied, and the causes of the evil are so little subject to human control that it is not likely to be soon diminished; still however, the frequent occurrence of different endemical diseases must be partly attributed to the carelessness and habits of the people. Mephitic and unhealthy exhalations rise from the marshes during the excessive heat of summer; yet it may be doubted if a more numerous or more industrious population could avert the course of the waters which descend from the surrounding countries. The saline or nitrous marshes in certain districts infect so completely all the streams that no water fit for domestic purposes can be obtained without repeated filtrations. The native Hungarians resist the prevailing maladies of the country better than the Germans or Slavonians. It was thought by the physicians of the last century that the immoderate use of animal food was the chief cause of many diseases, but it has been since proved by more recent and more numerous observations that the Wallachians are the people most liable to such diseases, and it is well known that, in conformity to the precepts of their religion, they abstain from butcher meat two hundred and thirty-eight days in the year. The same maladies often prove fatal to the women in the lower orders of society, although they drink water and live for the most part on a vegetable diet. [t]

Land and rocks.

It is unnecessary to give a minute geological account of the country, but some facts worthy of notice may be collected from the works of MM. Beudant, Kitaibel, Esmark and Lefebvre. Granite rocks are most common in the group of Tatra and in the eastern mountains of Marmarosch. The summits of Tatra consist of naked granite, but at no great distance below them, the same rock is concealed by extensive beds of primitive and com-

[t] Gœmeri, de indole æris Hungarici, Vienna, 1765. Schrand, (Proto-medicus Hungaricus;) Notice sur le Scorbut, 1803.

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pact limestone, which are covered in many places by layers of argillaceous schistus.[u] Grauwacke covers or surrounds the base of the granite mountains in Transylvania. An immense mass of compact limestone on the south of the great chain separates Wallachia from the Bannat, confines the bed of the Danube, and passes into Servia and Bosnia.[x] The statements of geologists concerning the secondary countries are according to their custom, contradictory. "The direction of the mean chains" says one "is transversal to that of the great, they are composed of porphyritic sienite or granular limestone. The metallic riches which nature has so liberally bestowed on Hungary and Transylvania are deposited in these mountains. The metals appear in the form of layers or strata in the porphyry, and of veins in the limestone."[y] Immense deposits of rock-salt are observed between these heights and at the base of the primitive calcareous chain. Their extent is not known, but they may be observed in Poland and Galicia, or on the other side of the Carpathians.[z] Heights like so many promontories that jut into the plains, are situated beyond the regions of metal and salt; they are mostly composed of calcareous rocks of the second formation, and mixed with the remains of marine animals. Their sides are covered with layers of light land, and abound in fossil deposits and petrified bitumen.[a] The aspect of the plains is very different, more than 300 salt springs rise between the hills, others are impregnated with nitre, they appear in different directions from Szasmos to the neighbourhood of Vienna, and from the Carpathians to the banks of the Drave and Danube. Lakes or rather marshes, which contain anatron or carbonate of soda, are scattered over all the plains, but are most numerous in the district of

Rock-salt.

[u] Esmark, Journal des Mines, No. XLVII. p. 819. Lefebvre, same journal XII. 39.

[x] Beudant's Geological Map of Hungary.

[y] Esmark, Journal des Mines, 815.

[z] Fichtel, Histoire du sel gemme, passim.

[a] Schedius, Journal de Hongrie, No. III. art. VI.

Bihor, they are dry during summer, and a white efflorescence is formed on the surface of these vast chasms.[b] We may mention besides the uniform arrangement of all the salts, the marshes of a natron encompassed but not mixed with sulphated magnesia, the aluminous and nitrous lands separated by parallel layers, the alternate strata of white and brown salt near Thorda,[c] and in the centre of the country, a level plain incrusted with shells. Now, as one narrow pass is the only outlet from that plain, for the Transylvanian and Servian mountains approach each other on the south of Hungary and are connected with the Alps in Dalmatia, it may be natural to suppose that lower Hungary has been at one period a lake and that the saline or alkaline crystallizations with which the soil is impregnated, are deposited in its ancient bed. The marine animals, of which the shells or remains are so abundant, must have existed in that lake or inland sea, and have perished at the time of the revolution by which the water was drained, and the channel of the Danube opened or enlarged.

Ancient lake or Mediterranean.

It is the province of travellers to refute or confirm this hypothesis from a more careful observation of the phenomena on which it depends. We shall state other facts of a different nature, relative to some isolated mountains or particular districts. M. Beudant who is more methodical than his predecessors, has shown that the porphyritic sienite near Schemnitz and Kremnitz is surrounded by a great quantity of *trachytes*, a new term introduced by that writer, which corresponds with the porphyritic trap of Esmark. The same rock is found in Matra, Hegy-Allya, Vihorlet and in the lower branch of the Transylvanian range on the east; it is also common in all the mountains of mean elevation throughout the country. The low hills in the north of the province consist of sandstone, and the lofty heights or peaks

Sandstone.

[b] Different Memoirs in the Annales de Chimie de Crell.

[c] Esmark, loco citato, page 820.

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near them of limestone and grauwacke. Sandstone is obtained in all the central districts of Transylvania, and fossil salt is found in greater abundance than in Poland. The metalliferous range round Schemnitz is crowned in many places with basaltic rocks, and a vein of *charcoal* runs across a part of *Mount Calvary*, a detached cone of 2735 feet in height.[d] The same appearances are observed in the country to the north of the Matra near the sources of the Ipoly and the Zagyra; but the most remarkable group is situated among the mountains on the north-west of the Balaton lake. No marks of the action of fire can be discovered in Hungary, unless the basalts be considered the effects of volcanic revolutions. MM. Beudant and De Buch suppose the *trachytic* lands to have been formed by a fire under the waters of the ancient sea, but a spark might as well be compared to a conflagration as the action of such a fire to that of an ordinary volcano. We shall leave these subjects in which ingenuity has been exercised in forming vague hypotheses, and give an account of the abundant and valuable productions that Hungary has received from nature. Metals of every kind are found in the Carpathian mountains, but the gold mines near *Schemnitz* and *Kremnitz* have lost much of their ancient wealth. The massive gold obtained at present is inconsiderable, not more than three or four drachmas are extracted from a hundredweight of ore. The annual produce amounts to two or three thousand marks of gold, and eighty or ninety thousand marks of silver. The deepest mine at Schemnitz is about 1200 feet below the ground, still it is 972 feet above the level of the sea. The mines of *Felsœ* and *Nagy-Banya* in the district of Szathmar are productive, the gold of Botza in the county of Lipto is found in a grey schistus mixed with silver, it is considered the finest of any in Hungary or even in Europe. The same metal is carried down all the rivers in Transylvania, and the largest pieces are found in the Aranyos. Some of the forty mines in the country are si-

Basalts.

Metals.

[d] *Bois carbonisé* are the words Esmark, Journal de Mines XLVII. p. 806.

tuated in the sandstone heights near Veraespatax, others in the hornstein rocks of Fazebay. The mine of *Nagyag* was remarkable for the richness of its ore, it yielded from 45 to 170 ounces of silver in the hundredweight, and from two hundred to two hundred and ten pennyweights of gold in the mark of ore; thus the quantity of silver amounted to two thirds, and that of gold to a third.[e] Although these mines returned at first a clear profit of 20,000 florins a month, the produce at present is not sufficient to defray the expenses of working them. None of these ores have been observed, though some writers affirm the contrary, in volcanic rocks, they are found in porphyritic sienite in a very decomposed state; the veins cross each other in a great many directions. In some of them at Nagyag, M. Kitaibel first discovered the new metal tellurium.[f] The gold washings on the Drave at the confines of Croatia, Hungary and Styria yield annually about 1,800 marks, and more than 12,000 are obtained from the rivers in the county of Temesch, a part of the Bannat. The remains of several ancient works prove that the Romans were not ignorant of the metallic treasures in Transylvania and the bannat of Temeswar, both of which were included in the ancient province of Dacia.

Iron mines.

Iron is obtained in the palatinates of Gomor, Sol, Klein-Hunt, Veszprin, Zips and Abruiwar. The annual produce of Wagda, Hunyad, Donsatra, Transylvania and the bannat of Temeswar is not less than 694,000 hundredweights.

Copper mines.

Copper is worked in the mines of Neusohl, Herrungrund, Rosenau, Schmolnitz, Cinsiedel Gœllnitz and Dobsau in Hungary, at Dognatza and Orawitza in the bannat of Temeswar, at Dewa, Wesel and Gurasatul in Transylva-

[e] The mine is situated at Szekerembe, about a mile and a half from Nagyag. The ore is found in white quartz and in rose-coloured *braunstein* which becomes brown by being exposed to the sun. The mine was probably worked by the Romans; but it was discovered anew by a Wallachian in 1747.

[f] Schedius, Journal de Hongrie, I. p. 275.

BOOK CI. nia. Thirty-four thousand hundredweights of a better than ordinary quality are obtained every year in Hungary. If Siberia be excepted, the same metal is not found in such abundance in any other country.

Different metals, &c. Lead, quick-silver, antimony, orpiment, cinnabar, sulphur, zinc, alum, arsenic and chrysocolla are among the other productions of the provinces. The quantity of quicksilver obtained from the different mines is not very great, but one of them at Zlatna in Transylvania yields 760 hundredweights.[g] Mineral alkali or natron appears in the form of a light efflorescence on the sandy plains in the neighbourhood of Debretzin and Gros-Waradin, the lake of Kis-Maria is sometimes covered with it, and the yearly produce is not less than 500 tons.

Immense deposits of fossil salt extend along the mountains of the second formation, and seem, like them, to have been once covered by the waters of the sea.[h] Although almost every rock in that region is a mass of salt, it is watered by limpid and fresh streams, but on the plains below it, innumerable brackish and salt springs rush from the base of the hills. Rock salt and saline springs abound in Transylvania or Torda, Vizaka, Kolos, Szeck, Dees and Para. The annual produce from the last district amounts to more than 1,000,000 hundredweights, there are six mines in it, one hundred and twenty pits, and twenty-five places in which undoubted indications of salt have been discovered. The salt of Rhona Szeck in Marmarosch is believed to be the best in Hungary, and at no great distance are the mines of Nagy-Bosca and Szlatina. The quantity obtained yearly from the last district is about 20,000 tons.[i] Government derives an immense sum from that article, according to some writers, not less than 10,000,000 florins.

Marbles and precious stones. Precious stones and different kinds of marble are found in the country. The red marble of Gros-Wardein and

[g] Hassel, Statist. d'Autriche, p. 120.

[h] Fichtel, Histoire du sel-gemme. [i] Demian I. 187. Fichtel, &c.

Dotis is highly prized, and Dobschau is famous not only for its alabaster but green fibrous asbestos. Rock-crystal in double sexilateral pyramids is sold for diamonds in more than one part of Hungary. The copper mine at Dognatza is rich in garnets, and that of Czerwentitza near Kaschau, is said to be the only one in Europe in which topazes, amethysts, iris and yellow-coloured opals and other precious stones are found. Coal may be mentioned among the other and more valuable productions. It does not abound in the country, the greatest quantity sold at the works of Œdenburg in one year was 16,000 tons.

Coal.

The vegetable kingdom is as rich and varied as the mineral. The husbandman is rewarded for his labour by immense harvests of wheat, millet, rice and maize. The best wines in Europe are produced from the vineyards, and as many herds are fed on the pastures as on any in the Ukraine. Rural economy, it is true, is not so well understood as in Germany, but the Hungarians are indebted to the extreme fertility of the soil and to the excellence of the climate for advantages that are rarely united in other countries. It must not be inferred that all the provinces are equally fruitful; wheat is rare in the mountainous districts in the north, and the inhabitants, like those of Norway and the Highlands in Scotland, make use of oaten bread. The central plains on the Danube are comparatively sterile, but *ikrista*, a species of *secale*, brought originally from Moravia, thrives in different parts of the country. The greatest quantity of wheat is raised in the county of Bihar, and the southern provinces abound in *kukurutza*, a variety of maize, the spikes of which are about a foot in length. Rice was of late years introduced into the Bannat, j and that plant so well adapted for the marshy districts is now cultivated in Hungary.

Vegetable kingdom.

Grain.

The wine of Tokay is generally believed to be the best in Europe; the vineyards from which it is obtained, are situated in the counties of Zemplin and Tokay, on

Wines, Tokay.

j Struve's Travels and Adventures, a German work, quoted by Demian.

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mount *Mezes-Male*, and near the village of Tarczal. It is by no means common in the country, the light and soft land most favourable for it, ferments with acids. The inhabitants collect the ripe grapes, which are dried, and in that state an essence is extracted from them, in appearance not unlike treacle, in taste resembling honey. A certain portion of it is mixed with the ordinary wine of the country, and thus changed into genuine Tokay, of which there are two kinds, one called *ausbruch*, and the other *masklass*. The first is sold in *antals*,[k] the second in barrels that hold two *antals*, the only difference between the wines consists in the quantity of essence with which they are mixed, for each part put in the masklass, two are put into the ausbruch. All the wine which, in commerce, is called Tokay, is produced in the vineyards of *Kerestur*, *Sator-Wihely*, *Tallya*, *Mada*, *Toltswa*, *Sator-Alya* and other places in the neighbourhood. The *Tarczal* and Mada are sweeter than the rest, the Tallya and Zombor are stronger, the Szegy and Zsadany have the most aromatic flavour. The vineyards in Hungary were improved by the care of King Bela IV., by his directions plants which had been selected from the best in Italy and Greece were imported in 1241. *Fourmint*, a particular kind of grape, is said to have been brought from the hills near Formiæ, that were covered with the vineyards from which, according to Horace, the table of his patron Mæcenas was supplied with wine. Other plants were brought by the Venetians from Malvasia. The prelates who repaired to the Council of Trent, and the pope himself pronounced the Hungarian wines to be superior to any in Italy or France. It might have been well if the controversies for which they met, had been as impartially decided. The learned Hermann-Conring commended these wines about the year 1576, although they were not generally known, and although the best way of making them was not discovered before 1650. The annual produce of the district is considerable, the actual

[k] An *antal* is a Hungarian measure nearly equal to thirty-two quarts.

quantity is not less than 240,000 *eimers*;[1] the most of it is sent to Vienna and Warsaw.[m] BOOK CI.

Other wines of a good quality are produced in Hungary, that of Menesch is little inferior to Tokay, and equal to it in strength and aromatic flavour. Busching says the wine of Rust on the lake of Neusiedel burns like alcohol. The vines near Oldenburg, Wersitz in the Bannat, and the mountains round Buda are not inferior to the best in Burgundy. The wine of Schirak resembles Champagne. But, if Tokay be excepted, the best is obtained from the western part of Slavonia or Syrmia, the red wines in that district are as good as the Monte Pulciano. The vineyards on Mount Alma are the oldest of any in the country, the first plants were put into the ground by the emperor Probus in the year 270. All the wines in Slavonia and Croatia lose their qualities by being transported into foreign countries, those in Transylvania retain them, but are hardly worth the expense of carriage. The vineyards in Hungary occupy an extent of 851,690 acres, and the average annual produce is about 18,230,000 *eimers*.

Lint and hemp succeed best in the Bannat, in the counties of Arwe, Eisenburg, Zips and Scharosch. Woad and madder are cultivated near Apatin, in the district of Borschod and in different parts of the Bannat. Melons, arbute berries, plums and cherries are common throughout the country. The quantity of tobacco exported yearly is not less than 200,000 hundred-weights. The cultivation of saffron furnishes employment to the peasants in the north of Hungary, who are generally denominated *safraniczi*. Different plants.

The north and west of Hungary, and different parts of Transylvania are covered with lofty forests, but no wood grows on the large plain in which the rivers meet. The forest of Bakony, the largest of any in the province, is Forests.

[1] An *eimer* is equal to thirty-two quarts.

[m] Notitia Hist. pol. œcon. montium viniferorum comit. Zemplin, by M. Szermay. Kaschau, 1798. Uber Tokais *wein bau*, by Deresen, Vienna, 1795.

BOOK CI. remarkable for the size of its oaks, some of them are as lofty and as straight as the finest firs. The Carpathian mountains are covered with *Pinus pumilio* or, as it is called by the inhabitants, *krumholz*, and a resin known by the name of Hungarian balsam is extracted from that plant. The yew and the *Corylus coturna*, L. are well adapted for household furniture, and the white lime which was supposed to belong exclusively to America, grows in different districts. The forest trees in the country cover about 7,452,280 acres.

We shall conclude this sketch of the vegetable kingdom by mentioning different zones which a distinguished botanist has marked in the following order. 1st, The plain rich in corn and fruit trees, that extends to the first hills or to the height of nearly 1500 feet above the level of the sea. 2d, The hills on which the oak, beech and chesnut trees thrive; their elevation is supposed to be 4000 or more correctly 3935 feet. 3d, The subalpine region from 4000 feet (above which the ash does not grow,) to 4600, where the fir disappears; it is covered with coniferous trees, and the birch is not observed as in Scandinavia at a higher elevation than the fir. 4th, The lower Alpine region from 4600 to 5600 feet; the *Pinus mughus* is rarely seen, it is the country of Alpine plants, coniferous shrubs and a few stunted and isolated firs. 5th, The higher Alpine region, which may be divided by two belts, the one at the elevation of 6500 feet, where the traveller perceives occasionally an alpine plant or a half-grown *Pinus mughus*; the other belt extends to the height of the mountains or to 8000 feet, and the rocks on the summits are covered with dark lichens.[n]

The classification might without doubt be altered and improved by the first intelligent traveller that visits Hungary and the interior of Transylvania, a country in which vegetation may be modified by the coldness of the temperature and the mountainous fence that surrounds it. M.

[n] Wahlenberg, Flora Carpathorum, LXVII. p. 308.

Wahlenberg has perhaps committed an error in confounding the two plains; the higher is in many respects different from the lower, in the latter the *nenuphar* of the Nile is seen floating on every stream. But it might be most important to observe the connexion or difference between the plants on the Carpathians and those on the mountains in Bosnia, Croatia, Styria and the south-west of Hungary. The flora of Pannonia derives its particular character from the latitude, the nature of the soil and the extensive strata of calcareous and other rocks.

Cattle. The largest oxen in Europe are bred in Hungary, they are of the strongest race, and are distinguished by the length of their horns and their grey colour. The numerous herds on the great plains between Debrezin, Gyula, Temeswar and Pesth, are perhaps inferior to those on the verdant hills of Transylvania. The number of oxen throughout Hungary in the year 1786 was 2,394,000; it is not likely that they have increased since that time. No fewer than 150,000 are exported every year to Austria and Italy. The extent of meadow land in Hungary is not less than 1,486,098 acres, and 120,000,000 stones of hay are produced on it. [o]

Sheep. The sheep indigenous to the country is of a particular kind, it is the same as the *Ovis strepsiceros* of Linnæus, and is distinguished by its large size, spiral horns, coarse and short wool. It has been crossed with the Turkish sheep, the breed is very common in the south of Hungary. Spanish sheep were first imported into the county of Raab, and the western districts; their wool is sold for three times the price of the ordinary wool in the province.

Horses. The nobles pay little attention to their horses, which are small, swift and light-made. There were in the year 1795 upwards of ten thousand in the royal stud near *Mezœhegyes* in the county of *Czanad*. The common people in Hungary have not many, and those they have

[o] Grelmann, Eclaircissemens de Statistique.

[p] Michael Nemeth, Journal of Hungary, 1804, No. 1.

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are very bad. Austria cannot muster in all its dominions, a sufficient number for its heavy cavalry. The nobles keep Neapolitan horses for the saddle; others for waggons or carriages are brought from Holstein and Denmark.

Hogs.

An immense number of hogs, not less than several millions, are fed in the central districts, but many of them are bought in Servia and Bosnia for the purpose of being fattened in Hungary. The Hungarian hog is of the common sort, that of Servia or the *mongonlitza* is covered with long bristles. The poultry in Hungary are bought by the Turks and Austrians; the geese which are exported and sold in different countries, are said to be Styrian or Bohemian, the fraud is rarely detected and it is a common proverb among the common people, that a name may add to the value of a goose.

Game, Fish.

Hungary and the adjacent provinces abound in every kind of game. The forests are haunted by deer, chamois, marmots, bears, wolves, otters, martens and lemmings. The birds that frequent them, are eagles, vultures, grouse, partridges, land and water rails, wood-cocks, pheasants, wild ducks, bustards and pelicans. The rivers, the innumerable lakes and marshes teem with fish. Caviar is obtained from the large sturgeon of the Danube, pearls are often found in muscles and different shell fish, carps weighing two or three pounds were sold in 1798 for eight shillings the hundred, or for less than a shilling the dozen. Turtles and frogs are imported to Vienna.

Hungary from the great variety of its resources might be compared to the finest countries in the world, but the progress of civilization is retarded by the indolence of the inhabitants, and the defects of a feudal administration. The mountainous districts might be as productive as any of the northern provinces in France, and a great part of the plains equal to those in Lombardy. Such changes could not be brought about without a more numerous and more industrious population, a greater number of canals, fewer privileges, and above all, fewer restrictions on the navigation of the Danube, the only natural outlet for the produce of the country.

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EUROPE.

Hungary and the adjacent Provinces, Towns, and Divisions, &c.

THE provinces, towns and memorable places in Hungary, or in the countries connected with it, are according to the order of our arrangement to be next described. To render the topographical details less tedious, it may be best to illustrate them with observations on the character of the people that inhabit different districts, or rather such portions of land as are separated by natural boundaries, and in some instances by political divisions. As every town in Hungary has at least two names, and some of them five, viz. a Hungarian, Latino-Hungarian, German, Slavonian and Wallachian, it may be necessary, independently of every precaution, to request the indulgence of those who are apt to consider repetition of this sort useless, or at all events prolix. It shall be more clearly shown in the remaining part of this work that such names are connected with the migrations of states and the successive inhabitants of different countries.

Central towns.

Ofen (Hung.) or *Buda*, (Slav.) a free and royal town, the ancient capital of Hungary is situated on the right bank of the Danube; although long inferior to Presburg, it has of late recovered its privileges, but not its ancient splendour. The Hungarian crown is kept at Buda, and the whole nation consider it a sort of palladium. Joseph

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II., who took it to Vienna, was obliged to return it a few days before his death. The court of the royal lieutenancy or the supreme administrative body of Hungary has since that time been held at Buda. The same place is supposed to have been the residence of Attila or the *Etzelburg* of the German and Scandinavian *sagas*; having remained in the hands of the Ottomans from the year 1529 to 1686, it still bears the marks of Turkish devastation, its warm baths, which are much admired, were built by the Turks. Buda serves as a fortress to the free and royal town of Pesth, which is directly opposite to it on the left Bank of the Danube, and both places communicate with one another by a bridge of boats three quarters of a mile in length. Pesth is worthy of notice on account of its different tribunals, government offices, a richly-endowed university, a fine museum of natural history, and a large but antiquated library. The most remarkable public buildings are the infirmary, the theatre and the houses or palaces of some noble families. The town is not strengthened by fortifications, its trade is more extensive than that of any other in Hungary, the inhabitants call it their Vienna, and the population is not less than 53,000, while that of Buda is only 32,000. The amount in both is equal to 85,000, which is not much below the average number of inhabitants in the capitals of the secondary states.

Plain of Rokasch.

The famous valley of *Rokusch* is not far from Pesth, it was there that the Hungarian nation assembled to elect its kings; no fewer than 80,000 tents have on some occasions been pitched on the plain, and in them were encamped all the nobles in the kingdom.

At no great distance to the north of these central towns, are *Vacz* or *Waitzen*, a populous burgh on the Danube, opposite the fruitful island of St. Andrew, Gœdœllo or the palace of prince Grassalkowitz, Vissegrad, a royal castle once inhabited by Mathias Corvin, but now fallen into ruins, and Gran, a royal city, of which the archbishop or primate of Hungary resides at Presburg. Gran has many names; it is called *Estergom* in Hungarian, *Os-*

trihom in Slavonian, and *Strigonium* in official Latin. It was celebrated for its warm baths, but an English traveller is of opinion that the frogs derive greater benefit from them than the inhabitants.

Towns in the north west.

We shall now enumerate the towns on the north of the *Cis-Danubien* circle or as it is generally styled Lower Hungary, an administrative but absurd term, for the country is situated nearer the mountains. The first place of consequence is *Presburg* or *Posony*, (Hung.) which was long the capital of the kingdom, indeed it is not many years since it retained that dignity.[a] The prosperity of Presburg depends on its commerce on the Danube, its manufactures and its proximity to Vienna. The castle is not more than three or four hundred yards from the town, and the royal hill in the vicinity is visited by every stranger. Royal hill. The kings ascended it after the ceremony of their coronation, drew the ancient sword of St. Stephen, and brandished it towards the four quarters of the earth, to indicate their willingness to defend the monarchy against all its enemies.

Schutt.

The large island of *Schutt* or *Czallokœz* (Hun.) extends to the south of Presburg, although fertile in fruits and pastures, the dense mists are unfavourable to corn, the inhabitants are subject to goitres. The district of *Szek-Vaika* is a small and separate state in the territory of the archbishop of Gran. The lands are held in fief by petty nobles, who are denominated *predialists*, and live under a distinct administration. *Komorn* or *Komarom*, (Hung.) an ancient town of 11,000 inhabitants, although situated on the island, is included in the *Trans-Danubian circle*, its citadel has never been taken, but Charlemagne entered the island, and defeated the Huns. *Tyrnau* or *Nagy-Szombath*, (Hung.) is one of the towns to the north of Presburg; it is well built, its trade is flourishing, but its situation unhealthy. *Landsitz*, though not very large, has been remarked on account

[a] Buda was declared the capital in 1790.

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of a fine castle which belongs to the Esterhazy family. The other places are Leopoldstad, a small fortress, Miava, a town of 10,000 inhabitants, and the villages or burghs of *Pœsteny*, *Rajecs* and *Teplitz*, all of which are famed for their thermal springs.

Towns of the mines.

The towns in the country of the mines may be next mentioned. *Kremnitz*, the residence of the council that preside over the mining districts, is situated in the lowest part of a gloomy valley; many ducats were at one time struck in its mint, the number is now much diminished.[b] *Schemnitz*, from its population, and the industry of its inhabitants, must be considered the first mining town in Hungary; its position is perhaps more cheerful than that of *Neusohl*, *Herrengrund*, *Kœnigsberg* and other places of the same kind. Although the people are religious, frugal and industrious, although almost all of them are employed in the mines, their appearance indicates poverty and wretchedness.[c] The particular nature of their occupation and the severity of the climate may have retarded their improvement. Their habitual sadness or melancholy may perhaps be attributed to the same causes, but their honesty, frugality and indifference about the wealth that surrounds them, may excite the admiration of the stranger. Their civility to foreigners, particularly to those who take an interest in their labours, is another trait in their character; they are always ready to descend with any one who wishes to visit their subterranean galleries. The towns on the confines of the mining districts are *Rima-Szombath*, or in German *Gros-Steffelsdorff*, a place of some trade, *St. Nicolas*, where the Jesuits established a college, *St. Martin*, *Skleno*, and other large burghs.

Caverns.

Immense cavities, which terminate in numerous caverns, are observed between the horizontal strata on the calcareous mountains in the counties of Thurocz, Arwa and

[b] *Kœrmœs-Banya* is the Hungarian name of Kremnetz.

[c] *Selmes-Banya*, (Hung.) *Sstavnitza*, (Slav.)

Liptau. The most remarkable are those near *Demanova* or *Demien-Falva*. Some writers declare that they have seen in them, the bones of gigantic animals and different fossil remains, other travellers could only discover stalactites. The Dragon's den [d] is supposed to be the one in which these curiosities are most common, many too, it is said, have been found in the cave of Okno.[e] The subterranean water in the *czierna* or black cavern, has been changed by its congelation into pillars and other phantastic shapes, their lustre forms a striking contrast with the gloomy and dismal vaults.

Different curiosities.

Other wonders are observed by the traveller that ascends towards Tatra.—A river near Triztina, that draws blood from every man that enters it, is much less frightful than might have been suspected from its name; it is nothing more than a turbid stream, in which some mineral held in solution is believed to be hurtful to those who are forced during the hay season to remain long on the cold meadows in the neighbourhood. The small and solitary village of Szulyo is enclosed in an amphitheatre formed by perpendicular rocks, and near it are three lakes, the *black*, the *green* and the *white*, their names are derived from the nature of their channels, or from the colour reflected by the neighbouring rocks. Some part of the green lake is of a black colour, but springs rush with impetuosity from a bed of white sand, and form in several places a greenish tint.[f]

The sixteen towns in the county of Zips.

We pass from these phenomena to the circle on the side of the Theiss, which forms part of Upper Hungary. The German inhabitants of sixteen free towns in the county of Zips, are probably the descendants of a colony from German Silesia, established by King Geysa nearly about the time of the Transylvanian settlement. These townsmen

[d] Bredetzki, Beytræge zur topog. I. p. 140. Ungarisches Magazin, VI. 43—49, 279, 430.

[e] Sartori, Naturwunder, IV. p. 186.

[f] Beudant, Voyage, II. p. 216—220.

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are distinguished by their honesty and perseverance, but they are very averse to the least innovation or alteration in their ancient customs; they still retain in matters of little or no moment the fashions of their ancestors. The men however agreed after long deliberation to adopt the Hungarian pantaloon, but the women determined not to give up their old-fashioned head dress. Their manners are grave, their conversation formal and ceremonious, and their character, as singular as their deportment. They spend the greater part of their time in worldly pursuits and religious duties. The different members of a family are industrious in the lint field and devout in the church. The girls prepare with much care the materials which their brothers convert into webs. They plant roses, carnations and a variety of flowers in every garden or plot of ground, and adorn themselves on Sundays with these simple ornaments. The word *Szasz* or Saxon, which is applied in Hungary to the Germans in Zips and Transylvania, is the generic name of all the German nations. The industrious mountaineers in Thuringia and the colonists in Zips resemble each other in their manners and dialect, but that is no argument against the Thuringian origin which has been assigned them.[g] *Neudorf* or *Iglo* is the most agreeable, *Bela* the most gothic of the sixteen towns, and *Kesmark*, a populous burgh, is the favourite station of travellers. The privileged district of the *ten lancers* was so called from a feudal institution, by which the nobility that inhabited it were obliged to furnish a guard of lancers attached to the person of the king.

Northern Towns.

We descend the Carpathians towards *Eperies*, *Kaschau*, *Erlau* and the plain through which the high road passes from Poland to Buda and Pesth. The supreme tribunal of the circle on this side of the Theiss is held in the royal town of Eperies or *Bressowa*, (Slav.) it is well fortified

g Adelung, Mithridates, II. 219, Suppl. p. 374. Ungarisches Magazin, II. 480.

and retains its Lutheran college. *Sawar* or *Salzburgh* has risen into importance from its salt-works, but *Kaschau*, *Kasa* (Hung.) or *Kossice* (Sla.) is considered the capital of Upper Hungary, it was distinguished in the civil wars, its university is one of the best in the country, and its population is not less than 10,000 souls; the site was formerly unhealthy, but the unwholesomeness of the air has been corrected by the draining of the marshes. *Lentschau*, is an inconsiderable town near the mountains on the west of the public road, its inhabitants carry on a trade in hydromel. No copper mine in Hungary is so productive as the one in the large burgh of *Schmœlnitz*; the water is impregnated with vitriol, the ground is strewed with marcasites, and the quantity of copper obtained yearly is supposed to be more than 1000 hundredweights. *Rosenau* derives its wealth from its bleach-fields, and *Dobschau* from its mines, in which are found garnets and asbestos.

Caverns in Torna.

Torna is the smallest county in Hungary, it abounds in caverns, but two of them are considered by the common people much more wonderful than the rest. The one or that of *Agtelek* has excited curiosity from its immense extent, its numerous labyrynths and stalactites, the other or *Szilitza* from its temperature being cold in summer, and warm in winter, the inhabitants are supplied with ice from it in the dog-days, and in winter it affords a place of shelter for flies, bats, hares and foxes. It must be confessed that the cause of the phenomenon has not been clearly understood, an old explanation is perhaps as probable as any of the modern. The changes in the temperature of the cave are so slow that a long time must elapse before it can be modified by different seasons. The water filters through the roof of the cavern in summer, is exposed to a colder atmosphere, congeals and remains frozen. The air becomes gradually milder after the summer's heat and the warm south winds that prevail about the beginning of autumn, the ice then melts, and is not formed again before the end of spring, for not until then

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is the temperature changed by the cold of winter and of the neighbouring lands that are frozen in February.[h]

Vineyards.

Miskolcs is a town of thirteen or fourteen thousand inhabitants in the hilly country near Kaschau, the neigbourhood is covered with vineyards and melon-fields. *Guyangios*, a large burgh in the same district, with a population of 8000 souls, is not less agreeably situated. *Erlau*, though not so flourishing as it once was, contains still 16,000 souls; the chief trade of the place consists in wine and cloth. An English traveller[i] not being fortunate enough to get any of the famous Erlau wine at the inns in the town, has not spoken of the inhabitants with his usual impartiality or good humour, his account might have perhaps been different, had he dined at *Fuorconstrati*, the palace of the bishop of Erlau, which is about a league from the city; it is known by the Hungarian, Slavonian and Latin names of *Eger*, *Iager* and *Agria*.

The traveller who leaves Erlau and proceeds in a north-west direction, passes *Ui-Hely* with its 300 cellars cut in a solid rock, and Tokay, which besides its mines boasts of precious stones, among others, the cornelion and sapphire-lynx. *Sarospatak* is peopled by 8000 inhabitants, and the college in the town is attended by more than 1200 theological and protestant students; it contains also a Catholic seminary with a library of 20,000 volumes. The college was endowed by Ragoczi, the illustrious chief of the insurgents, after the plan of Comenius, a laborious philologist.

Towns in the north-east.

The next towns are those in the mountainous districts of the Upper Theiss or in that part of the country inhabited by the Hungarians when they entered the kingdom. *Ung-Var*, a fortified place, was one of the first Hungarian settlements. The strong citadel of *Munkatsch*, which is now converted into a state prison, stands on a solitary and almost inaccessible rock, it was three years defended against the attacks of the Austrians by the wife of the patriot Te-

[h] Hamburgh Magazine, IV. p. 60. Busching, II. p. 94. [i] Townson.

keli. *Huszt* and its strong castle are situated in the circle on this side of the Theiss. *Szigeth*, another town in the same department, is peopled by 7000 inhabitants, who are for the most part employed in importing the salt from the mines of *Rhonaszek* into different parts of the country. The small town of *Nagy-Karoly* is built near the fine gardens and residence of Count Karowly. A large mint and other public buildings have been erected in *Nagy-Banya*, which signifies the great mine, but the burgh of *Felsœ-Banya* or the high mine is more populous than the royal city. *Szathmar* is surrounded with walls and inhabited by 10000 individuals; a great quantity of soda is obtained in the neighbourhood from the extensive marshes of Eczed.

Different nations in northern Hungary.

Having enumerated all the towns of any consequence in northern Hungary, some remarks may be offered concerning the different nations that inhabit them. The descendants of the *Slovacks* or ancient Slavonians, the subjects of the Moravian kings, have peopled all the north-west districts, they are scattered along the northern confines. The Rousniacs or Red Russians possess almost exclusively the country on the north-east. The Magiars are less numerous than either of the other two, they are confined to the frontiers on the plains, the hills round Presburg, Erlau and Szathmar; they have also penetrated into the mountainous districts near Torna, *Gœmœr* and *Kaschau*, and some of them still remain in the counties of *Unghvar* and *Beregh*. Thus the two dominant nations are branches of the great Slavonic race.

Slovacks.

The *Slovacks* make up nearly the whole population in the counties of *Nytra*, *Trentzin*, *Thurocz*, *Arva*, *Lipto*, *Zolyom*, *Zips*, *Barsch*, and *Sarosch*. They form about the half in those of *Presburg*, *Hont*, *Neograd*, *Gœmœr*, *Torna*, *Abaujivar*, and *Zemplin*; they have passed southwards into *Gran*, and in the north-east into *Unghvar*. More active and industrious than the Hungarians, they have increased in latter times, and established even in our own days several colonies in the low districts. If the Sla-

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vonians settle in any place inhabited by the Hungarians or Germans, the latter never flourish afterwards; they lose their language, are confounded with the Slavonians, or become extinct. Thus all the mining towns, which were at one time possessed by Germans, are now wholly peopled by Slavonians; the German names of these towns are still suffered to remain, and are almost the only proof of the existence of their former inhabitants.

Kopaniczares.

Character.

The Slovacks are in general well made, and the inhabitants of the mountains, or the *Kopaniczares*[k] are remarkable for their lofty stature. They are gay, inconstant, adroit, and widely different from the Germans. Addicted to pleasure, and of a sanguine temperament, they want the honesty of the Germans, the reserve or dignity of the Hungarians, and the kind hospitality of both. They were long degraded by slavery; their language, which is ill adapted for intellectual improvement, has not been much cultivated, but their quickness in learning different branches of agriculture, the mechanical arts and mathematics in its application to these arts, renders them very useful

Costume.

subjects. Their wealth, the produce of their industry, enables them to dress better than the other inhabitants; their costume consists in summer, of light cloth pantaloons, an open vest without sleeves, a shirt with broad ruffles at the breast and wrists, and a leathern girdle with a pouch for a steel, flint, *ama-dou*, tobacco and a pipe. A cloth or sheep-skin great coat defends them against the winter's cold.

Dialect of the Slovacks.

The dialect of the Slovacks is little different from the Slavonian spoken in Bohemia and Moravia, but the discourses from the pulpit, particularly the protestant sermons, are delivered in Bohemian or pure *Czeche*. The Slovack books which we have seen, are printed in German

Numbers.

characters. The total number of Slavonians, without including the Rousniacs, Szotaks and Croatians, amounts to 2,900,000 individuals.

[k] Literally, the workers with spades.

Rousniacs.

The Rousniacs or *Ruthenians*, who are sometimes called Greeks on account of their religion, are natives of Red Russia or eastern Gallicia, from which they were driven by civil wars, changes in dynasties and feudal oppression. They settled in Hungary about the 12th century, they now form the greater part of the population in the counties of *Saros*, *Beregh*, *Ugots*, *Ungh*, *Zemplin*, and perhaps *Marmarosch*. Thus placed on the borders of their native soil, they mix with their countrymen in Gallicia and in the circles of Stanis, or with the Slavonians of Stry and Sambos. The same people have migrated to Bukowine and even to Transylvania; in the last country they are confounded with the Wallachians. The number of them in Hungary is not fewer than 360,000.

Manners and customs.

The Rousniacs belong to one of the demi-savage tribes in Europe. Averse to labour and industry, they have continued indolent and poor; fugitives on their arrival in the country, they still live apart from the other inhabitants. Although their language is a Slavonic dialect, they have not associated with their neighbours; that circumstance, it is true, may be partly ascribed to their religion. Some of them are members of the united Greek church, others adhere to the eastern rites.

Marriages, &c.

Their marriage ceremonies are singular; a girl is generally betrothed at the age of five or six, and brought up from that time until she arrives at womanhood, in the house of her mother-in-law. It often happens that the young men carry away the girls that remain with their parents. A market of young women is held three times every year in the village of *Krasnibrod* near a monastery of the order of St. Basil. Thousands of Rousniacs resort to it on these occasions, the maidens are seen with loose and flowing hair, the widows are adorned with a crown of green leaves. When a man resolves to unite himself with any one of the fair sex around him, he attempts to carry her to the cloister in spite of the real or feigned resistance, which she or her relatives may offer, if he succeed in getting her beyond the threshold of the church, she is at that moment betroth-

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ed. The friends of both parties are invited to the marriage, the bride endeavours to conceal herself in the chamber or in the church, and is discovered by the women, who present her to her husband. A German writer on statistics has declaimed against these customs; although it must be confessed that they are incompatible with the habits of polished nations, it is not less certain that they may throw some light on the manners of pastoral tribes, and on that period of barbarism or civilization, in which poetry and romance have flourished. Much interesting information might be derived from a residence among the aborigines of the Carpathian mountains, in all probability, the first country of the Servians;[1] but it would be necessary for the traveller to study their language, to collect their national songs, and to observe their customs and superstitions. The Slovacks, the Rousniaks and Magiars in the district of Zemplin, are all of them confounded under the general name of *Szotaks*.

Towns on the plain.

Debrec.

We leave the Carpathian mountains and descend towards the plains of southern Hungary. The town of *Debreczin* is situated in a fertile but in some places marshy country on the north of the Marosch. It is the most commercial town in Hungary, and the most populous after Pesth, but there are no fresh water springs in its neighbourhood, no wood for fuel, no materials for building. The wealth of the people depends solely on their manufactures or woollen stuffs, leather, rosaries and ornamental heads for tobacco pipes. It resembles an overgrown village rather than a town, many of the houses are covered with straw, and none of the streets are paved. The inhabitants though rich, have no relish for social or intellectual enjoyments. The gloom that pervades the place, the forbidding qualities of the people may be partly the effects of their sedentary occupations, and the rigid doctrines of Calvinism. The only public institution worthy of notice, is a protestant university with a library of twenty-thousand volumes.

[1] Memorabilia provinciæ Czetnick by Bartholomai. 1799.

Nagy-Varad or according to its German name Gros Waradin, a fortress and town on the Kœrœsch of 7000 inhabitants, is also situated on the great plain; its seminary is well attended, and it is the residence of several public functionaries. The other places are *Nemet-Gyula*, *Szarvas* and *Oroshaza*, all of them large burghs or rather towns, for the population of each is not less than six or eight thousand souls. *New Arad* is built on the Marosch, and in the town of *Vasarhely*, a society is established of which the object is to diffuse the knowledge of physical science. The villagers of Menes boast of their wine, which by some judges is preferred to Tokay. All these plains, fertile in pastures, corn and wine, are inhabited by Hungarians and Wallachians.

Towns in the Bannat of Temeswar.

The country beyond the Marosch or the Bannat of Temeswar belonged to the Turks in 1718, and was formally united to Hungary in 1799. Temeswar or the capital of the province is a large and regular fortress, its streets are broad and straight, the houses are built like those in Italy, the marshes which surround it, may be of advantage for its defence, but they are hurtful to the health of the inhabitants. *Wersitz*, a burgh consisting of a thousand houses, is peopled by *Raitzes* and Germans, it is situated in a district famous for its wines. *Lippa*, *Carnasebes*, *Lugos*, *Meadia*, *Uj-Palanka* and *Pantchowa* are so many fortified places that rose into notice during the wars against the Turks, but none of them is susceptible of a regular defence.

Caverns, Veterani.

The temperature of the baths of Hercules near Meadia is never lower than 48° of Reaumur,[m] and the cavern of Veterani is memorable from the bravery of a few soldiers, who defeated there an Ottoman army. The soil in the Bannat and in the *military* limits is humid but fertile; warmed by a burning sun, it yields immense harvests of corn, maize, rice and tobacco. The inhabitants are Wallachians, Servians, German and Hungarian colonists.

Hungarian Wallachians.

The Wallachians are scattered not only throughout the Bannat, but the counties of Marmorosch, Szathmar, Bihar

[m] 48° of Reaumur is equal to 140° of Fahrenheit.

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and Arad. They form in these districts a population of not less that 600,000, their number in Transylvania is probably greater, according to M. Lichtenstern, it is equal to 800,000, those in Bukowine cannot be estimated lower than 200,000, so that if the *Zinzares* or Macedonian Wallachians be included, there are not fewer in the Austrian dominions than 1,600,000. All of them belong to the Greek church, but their religion is confined to the strict observance of frequent fasts and holy-days, which make up a great part of the year. The fasts are seldom broken, even the robber restrains his appetite, thinking that God may bless his exploits. The priests are very ignorant, and possess in an eminent degree the monkish virtue of intolerance; a popish writer remarks that they surpass in that respect all the other Greek schismatics. It is needless to consider the members of any sect, schismatics, or to adopt the prejudices of the Vatican against the patriarchal church; had that rule been adhered to, the Austrians might have written more impartially concerning the Wallachians. If any of them, it is said, enter a Catholic church by mistake, and sprinkle themselves with holy water, they repair to one of their own priests, who, for a stipulated sum, performs the ceremony of *lustration*, which consists in repeating many exorcisms and in drenching them with *good holy water*. The same priests have borrowed perhaps *from the Jesuits*, the right of pardoning what are called involuntary murders, such as are committed in the heat of passion, to avenge an affront or to vindicate offended honour. These crimes are not uncommon, and the indulgences thus obtained are added to the revenue of the clergy, who adhering to the ceremonial law, "abstain from things strangled and from blood," the women on that account are prohibited from killing a fowl in the ordinary way.

Funerals.

The Germans rail against their funeral rites. Deafening shrieks are heard over the body of the deceased, the same yells are continued at intervals until the body is put into the grave, all the mourners then ask him with a loud

voice, why he died, more particularly as he had either so many children or so many friends, so many oxen or so many sheep. A large stone and a cross, effectual charms against vampyres, are laid near the coffin, perfumes are spread over the tomb, libations of wine are poured on the grave. The attendants eat wheaten bread, a duty believed to be most grateful and flattering to the defunct, and then repair to a feast, which corresponds in magnificence with the wealth of him whom they deplore. The relations return several times to the grave, moisten it with wine, shriek horribly, interrogate the departed as to his motives for dying, and allege either that he acted unwisely, or ought to have changed his mind. The widow honours the memory of her husband by erecting on his tomb, a pole on which are suspended a garland of flowers, the wing of a bird and a piece of cloth. These customs, however barbarous, are the expressions of natural and kindly feelings, the libations, the perfumes and the garlands are pagan but affecting ceremonies, which were partly retained by the primitive church.

Superstitions.

A Wallachian rarely touches a beech tree, because its sap in spring is of a reddish or a bloody colour, and because the Turks cut it into stakes with which they empale the Christians. An eclipse is a combat between the sun and dragons let loose from hell. A great noise is made, guns are fired that the sun may not be devoured by the dragons. No mode of execution is more disgraceful than the gallows, it is more dreaded than any which refined cruelty has devised; the reason alleged is that the soul of a man with a rope round his neck, cannot emanate from his mouth.[n]

Remarks.

Such are some of the statements made by the German writers concerning the moral condition of the Wallachians in Hungary. A French traveller believes their vices to be inseparable from slavery, ignorance and poverty, and the natural consequence of an oppression even less

[n] It is supposed that it escapes by a more ignoble passage.

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rigid than that to which they submit. But their frugality and industry are so great, and in these qualities the women are fully equal to the men, that the Wallachian population increases rapidly, and is now spread over countries lately desert.[o] If the Wallachians settle in a district inhabited by the Rousniacs, the latter are in time confounded with the former, and lose gradually their language, manners and customs. Several noble families are of Wallachian origin, and two heroes, John Hunyad and his son Mathias Corvin.

Wallachian fraternity.

When two friends resolve to remain faithful to each other through life, bread, salt and a cross are put into a vase, they eat together, drink out of the same glass and swear by the cross, the bread and the salt, *(pe cruce, pe pita, pe sare,)* that their friendship shall only terminate at their death. The individuals are ever afterwards called *frace de cruce* or brothers of the cross. The Scandinavian heroes observed similar customs, and they were common throughout Europe in chivalrous times.

Towns between the Danube and the Theiss.

No mention has hitherto been made of the towns in the plain between the Danube and the Theiss or the southern districts of the *Cis-Danubian* circle. Pesth may still be considered the central point. *Ketskemet* or the largest town in that part of Hungary, is peopled by 25,000 souls; it gives its name to extensive downs covered with sand, shells, and stones which are composed of sandy particles cemented together. The population of *Nagy-Kœrœs* is not less than 12,000; and the neighbouring country is fruitful in vines. A castle built by prince Eugene is the only remarkable edifice at *Ratskeve* in Czepel, an island on the Danube. Eugeniusberg was another residence of the same great general, it was there that he devoted his leisure hours to agriculture, he is supposed to have been the first man who imported the Arabian sheep into Hungary, by which the breed in the country was improved. *Kolocza*, an ancient but not very flourishing city, is the residence of a

[o] Beudant, Voyage de Hongrie, i. 73.

bishop, who holds the highest rank after the primate. Theresienstadt, which is situated in the interior, was formerly a mere burgh, it possesses at present, with a population of 24,000 Hungarians, Croatians and Servians, the privileges of a free and royal town. The commercial industry of the inhabitants is surpassed by the townsmen of Ketskemet, and the prosperity of the place is attributed to a colony of Servians, who were induced to settle in it by the promise of valuable immunities. Its rural territory is about 160,000 Hungarian acres or 240 English square miles; many parts of it are well adapted for vineyards, and so great an extent of land is attached to no other town in the Austrian dominions. The fortress of *Szegedin* stands at the confluence of the Theiss and the Maros, on the south of it is the free and royal town of Sombor, which obtained its privileges in 1751. *Neo-Planta* is the Græco-Latin name of a free town, that the Hungarians call *Uj-Videk*, and the Germans, *Neu-satz*; its population in 1770 amounted only to 4000, it is now greater than 14,000. Many of the inhabitants were originally Servians and Armenians.

District of the Tchaikistes.

Titul is the principal place in the district of the *Tchaikistes* or Illyrians, who keep up a fleet on the Danube. The vessels are gallies or *tchaikes* that carry from four to twelve guns, more than 1200 men are employed in the service, and they are commanded by a chief, who must be an Illyrian by birth. A portion of land has been assigned to them between the Danube, the Theiss and a line drawn from Carlowitz to the north-east. The dock yards, the arsenal and the houses of the staff officers are built in Titul, and near the same place are the remains of a Roman intrenchment, which extended from the banks of the Danube to the Theiss, and served probably to protect an establishment similar to that of the Tchaikistes. Prows of ancient vessels, Roman tools for building ships, and pieces of money have been found in the neighbourhood; the most of them are deposited in the arsenal of Titul.

Great and Little Cumania.

The plain of Great Cumania or *Nagy-Kunsag* extends

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along the Berettyo between Pesth and Debreczin, its surface is equal to twenty Hungarian square miles, and it is inhabited by 32 or 33,000 individuals, mostly protestants.[o] The country is fruitful in wheat and wine; Kardzag, the largest town on the plain, is peopled by 8400 inhabitants. Little Cumania or *Kis-Kunsag* is formed by two vallies between the Pesth, Theresienstadt, the Danube, and the Theiss; it is twice as large as the other, and peopled by 42,000 Catholics and Protestants. *Felegy-Haza* or the chief town is inhabited by a population of 9500. The whole district is a plain of ordinary fertility; corn fields, orchards and vineyards are scattered over immense pastures destitute of trees or shrubs, several lakes of natron or soda may be observed in many parts of it. The mirage is often seen in the hot days of summer, it is the *deli baba* or fairy of the south, it tantalizes the shepherd and his thirsty flock with the sight of azure lakes crowned with forests, palaces and ruins.

Cumans.

The Cumanians, a Tartar tribe, rose into importance in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, they invaded, devastated and ruled over the countries between the Wolga and the Danube. Although subdued by the Mongols in 1237, their numerous tribes were mentioned at a later period by Carpini and Rubruquis. Some of them found refuge in Hungary so early as the year 1086, and a greater number in the time of Gengiskan. They mixed in many civil commotions, and it was not until the year 1440 that they adopted the manners and language of the Hungarians; they professed Christianity much about the same period. Their ancient dialect is now forgotten, the last individual that recollected a few words in it, was a burgess of Kardzag, who died in 1770. Some sermons however have been preserved, and its affinity with the Tartar or Turkish has thus been proved.[p] It is unnecessary to enter into the doubtful

Origin.

[o] An Hungarian mile is about 4 English miles, consequently the surface of the district is nearly equal to 320 English square miles.

[p] Thunmann, Acta Jablonov. Soc. vol. IV. Ethelka by Dugonics, vol. II. p. 384, &c. &c. See Mithridates, l. 480.

discussions to which the history of this people has given rise, to inquire whether they were *Ouzes*, *Polowzes*, a tribe of the *Petchenegues*, or an ancient branch of the great Hungarian nation. It is equally difficult to determine whether they founded the town of Magyar in the *steppes* of Kuma, or mixed with the Awares of Caucasus. Such inquiries might form the subjects of separate treatises, but it is probable from the learned researches of M. Klaproth, that the origin of the Cumans is different from any hitherto assigned them. The river *Kama* is synonymous with Kuma in the Permiake and Siriaine. The Finnic tribes in the *Great Hungary* of the middle ages called themselves *Komi*, and *kum* in the Wogul idiom signified people.[q] The Cumans might have been originally a Finnic nation on the banks of the *Great Kuma*; if that opinion be correct, it is likely that they became powerful during the migrations of the Hungarians or Magiars, mixed afterwards in the course of their distant expeditions and political vicissitudes with Turkish tribes or the *Chazares*, the *Ouzes* and *Petchenegues*, adopted partly the dialects of these strangers, came after many wanderings to the new country of the Magiars, and settled among their kinsmen.[r]

Iazygia or the country of the Iasses, (*Iasz-Orszag*, Hung.) is situated to the north-west of the Great, and to the north of the Little Cumania. It is a fruitful plain covered with corn fields, vineyards and pastures, but it is not varied by woods or trees. *Iasz-Bereny*, although it contains 12,000 individuals, has the appearance of a large village, its inhabitants are ignorant and slothful, few artisans or tradesmen are found amongst them. The *Iasz* possess a district of 18 Hungarian square miles,[s] and their number is not supposed to be less than 42,000. They

[q] Klaproth, Asia polyglotta. Text, p. 187, 192.

[r] Horvath has almost proved, by other arguments, that the Cumans and Hungarians are the same. See his work, De Jazigum et Cumanorum. Ini. et Moribus. Pesth, 1803.

[s] About 288 English square miles.

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are not, as their official Latin designation seems to indicate, the descendants of the Sarmatian Iazyges, but a tribe of Cumans, who served in the foremost ranks as archers. Their Hungarian name is expressive of their former employments, they are called *Balistarii*, in the language of different tribunals, and by some Hungarian authors, *Philistæi*.

The three Cuman tribes enjoy important privileges. Subject to the direct authority of the palatine, they have their separate laws, modified taxes and a special deputation at the diet. The *Haydouques*, to whom several immunities have also been granted, are only a distinct military body, their villages extend to the north-east of Great Cumania between Debreczin and Tokay.

Trans-Danubian circle.

The portion of Hungary on the west of the Danube, is officially styled the Trans-Danubian circle; it forms a sort of quadrangle bounded on three sides by the Danube and the Drave, and contiguous on the fourth to the

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mountainous districts of Styria and Austria. We may be supposed to travel from Buda across the well-wooded hills of Pilis. The following towns are worthy of notice. *Dotis*, or *Tata*, contains nearly 10,000 inhabitants, and is much frequented on account of its thermal and medicinal springs. *Szent-Marton* stands at the foot of a hill, which the benedictines call the *sacred mount of Pannonia*, these monks possess still the rich abbey founded by King Geysa. *Raab* or *Gyor* is situated on the banks of a river of the same name, and at the place where it joins the Danube; its population amounts to 14,000 souls, it is well fortified and the best built town in the circle. *Oedenburg* (*Soprony*, Hung.) is a manufacturing and trading town, its lands occupy an extent of 1,920,000 square *klafters*, or more than four times the number of square yards, many of the fields are covered with vineyards. *Eisenstadt*, (*Kis-Marton*, Hung.) is adorned with a large castle belonging to the Esterhazy family, the ministers of their large principality reside in the town. *Rust* is famous for its wines, *Neusiedel* is

built on the northern banks of its lake, and *Esterhaza* is the Versailles of the princes who have derived their name from it. To the south of these places are the free and royal town of *Gunz*, the seat of the supreme tribunal in the circle, and *Stein-am-Anger* or the rock on the plain, (*Szombat-Hely*, Hung.) a populous burgh on the river Gunz, the birth place of St. Martin, bishop of Tours. The small town of *Kesthely* is the residence of the *Festetics*, a noble family, the founders of the Georgicon, an excellent seminary for agriculture and rural economy. Saint Gothard or *Szent-Goth* is memorable from the defeat of the Turks in 1664, and *Stridova* is the native town of St. Jerome, a father of the church, and a man of genius. The countries on the south and south-east of lake Balaton are fruitful, but thinly peopled, and the inhabitants are more barbarous than their neighbours. *Kanischa* was once fortified, its ramparts are now in ruins. Sigeth is rendered illustrious by the heroic defence of Count Zrini, the Hungarian Leonidas. *Funfkirchen* or *Pecs* is a small town at a short distance from the Drave. *Mohacz* on the Danube, is famous on account of a victory obtained over the Hungarians in 1526, and from the no less signal defeat of the Turks in 1687. BOOK CII.

Simonsthurn on the Shor, *Tolna* on the Danube, and *Hœgiœs* are insignificant burghs, but on the north is the free and royal town of *Stuhl-Weissembourg* (*Szekes Feyer-Var*, Hung. *Bieligrad*, Slav.) with a population of 13,000 individuals. The ancient kings of Hungary were crowned and interred in the city, in the neighbourhood are public walks, summer houses and gardens. *Vesprim*, an episcopal city, is at no great distance from the northern extremity of the Balaton lake, its numerous fairs are resorted to by the peasants in the adjoining districts, who appear in their varied and picturesque costumes. Towns continued.

The Magiars or Hungarians form three fourths of the population in the Trans-Danubian circle, and the western frontiers are chiefly inhabited by Germans. The industrious natives of Styria and Austria have introduced their German inhabitants.

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system of husbandry into the counties of Wieselburg, Oedenburg and Eisenburg. The other inhabitants, who are still distinguished by their harsh and guttural dialects, migrated at a later period from Swabia.

Vandals.

The *Vandals* are most numerous in the counties of Szalad and Szumeg, some of them are scattered over different parts of Oedenburg and Eisenburg, they occupy in all 160 villages, they settled first in Bellatinz; Turnischa or their chief town is situated in that seigniory.[t] Their name has excited attention from the fact that the ancient Vandals, who fled for refuge to Pannonia, continued during forty years citizens of Rome, they committed afterwards dreadful devastations, but according to the general opinion they were of Gothic origin.[u] The Vandals of Hungary call themselves *Slovenes*, their dialect is almost the same as that of other Slavonic tribes, they appear to have been a colony of the Windes or Wendes in Styria, and differ at present from them only by their adherence to protestantism.[v] The Hungarian jurists may have distinguished them by the celebrated name of Vandals, which was supposed to be synonymous with that of Wendes by the latinists of the middle ages.

Croatia and Slavonia, physical divisions.

The ancient kingdoms of Croatia and Slavonia are now attached to Hungary. The first may be divided into *three* distinct physical regions, or into the country intersected with the hills and plains, watered by the Drave, the Save and the Kulpa; 2dly, the ridge formed by different branches in the mountainous chains of *Kapella*, *Wellebit* and others; lastly, the maritime districts of Hungarian Dalmatia, at present united to Croatia. The phenomena most interesting to the physical geographer are to be found in the second of these three divisions. The calcareous mountains of which it is formed are lofty, the top of *Plissivitza* is

[t] Busching, Erdbeschreibung, ii. 486.

[u] Hieronym, Opp. i. p. 26, 93.

[v] Anton, Litterarisch. Anzeiger, 1797. No. 81. They are confounded with the Germans in the statistics of Schwartner.

about 5550 feet above the level of the sea, and the principal summit of mount *Wellebit* reaches to the height of 5400; the elevation of several others varies from 3500 to 4000, the Kapella are not higher than 2500 feet. Immense masses of limestone, rent in every direction, and separated by huge caverns or frightful precipices, may be observed on all of them. Vallies enclosed on every side extend in different parts of the ridge, particularly in the south; some are watered by rivers that have no outlet or are lost in caverns from which they arrive perhaps by subterranean passages at the channel of the Kulpa. Their streams often swollen by heavy rains do not flow with sufficient rapidity under the ground, and then the plains are inundated or changed into lakes.[x] The districts of *Licavia* and *Corbavia* are the most remarkable of these vallies, they are peopled by rude tribes, whose manners and customs shall be mentioned in a different part of the work. The *Gyula* and *Sluinchicza*, in addition to the *Lica* and *Corbava*, may be included among the rivers that have no apparent outlet; the last, before it ingulphs itself, forms forty-three fine cascades which move an equal number of mills. The division is on the whole barren, still many small and well-cultivated vallies are fruitful; it abounds in excellent and various kinds of marble, with which the bridges and parapets on the *Caroline way*, and the houses at *Zeng*, *Porto-Re* and *Fiume* are built.[y]

These countries are exposed to the *Bora* or to a north wind accompanied with intense cold, so great is its violence that large stones are carried in its course, and dashed to pieces in their fall. The district of Rudaicza is thus rendered uninhabitable and almost inaccessible. The narrow border between the mountains and the sea or the gulf of Guarnero is in many places protected against the borra, and the climate is as mild in these

[x] Hacquet's Travels, Leipzik, 1785.

[y] Demian's Statistics, ii. 182, Borra.

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sheltered spots as in Italy, the fig, the lemon and other fruits of the south ripen in the open air.

Produce.

A great part of Croatia or the country watered by the Drave and the Save, yields abundant harvests of maize, oats and rye, produces a great quantity of fruit, and is covered in some districts with large forests of lofty oaks. A German writer calculates that 3,700,000 *metzen*[z] of corn are raised on it every year, and that 7400 hundred-weights of copper are extracted from the mines of *Szamobor*. The whole region resembles in many respects the southern districts of Slavonia.

Slavonia.

The hills of *Carievitza* traverse Croatia between the Drave and the Save, and pass into Slavonia; their height in some parts of that province is considerable. The *Papuk* is 2748 feet above the level of the Save, other summits covered with lofty forests add to the beauty of many landscapes in the country, and of none more so than the one near Possega where the hills become gradually lower, and join extensive plains. The plants, from the heat and humidity of the climate, are green eight months in the year; every day new flowers expand, or fruits arrive at maturity.[a] When the water collected during winter disappears, different kinds of wild trefoil and other nutritive herbs rise on the meadows, and the oxen of Slavonia are as large as those in Hungary, or the largest in Europe. M. Taube tells us that the number of sheep fed on these pastures exceeds two millions and a half; although his calculation appears too high, its inaccuracy is as yet problematical. The wool of the country has been greatly improved by the labours of an agricultural society at *Merkopail*.

Produce, Agriculture.

Agriculture is little aided by the lights of science, but the husbandman is rewarded in Slavonia by rich harvests. Maize yields from a hundred to two hundred-fold; wheat too is generally cultivated, but it is mixed with a great quantity of bad grain, the inha-

[z] A measure equivalent to three bushels.

[a] Taube's description of Slavonia and Hungary, a German work in three volumes; it is ably analysed by Busching.

bitants are too indolent to hoe the ground or to sift the corn. It is generally supposed that all the grain crops raised throughout Slavonia amount on an average to four millions of *metzen*, or to twelve millions of bushels. But besides those that are cultivated, there is another sort very common in many parts of the country, the people call it manna, it is the same as the *Festuca fluitans* of Linnæus. Almost every kind of fruit tree thrives in the province, the peach, the almond, the plum and the chesnut are the most numerous. The plantations of plum trees have been compared to forests. German writers assure us that *daki* or *sliva-vitcha*, a strong drink made of plums, is far superior to brandy or rum. The tobacco near Possega is as good as any in Turkey, and its culture is a source of wealth to the inhabitants. The white mulberry tree appears in luxuriance, consequently the silk must be of the finest quality. The quince grows in a wild state, the Austrians who brought some from the gardens of Schœnbrunn, were surprised on finding them inferior to those in the country. The Slavonian truffles are equal to any in Piemont, but hogs feed on them, the people do not take the trouble to collect them; for the same reason, the *Fraxinus ornus* or flowering ash is neglected, but it yields in Calabria a precious manna, and, like the Italian poplar, succeeds as well in Slavonia as at the base of the Appenines.

Population.

Such are the natural riches of the two provinces which are denominated kingdoms, although Slavonia does not contain more than 540,000 inhabitants, and Croatia 68,000, or at most, inclusively of the military district, 700,000. Few Hungarians are settled in either country, the number of Servians is comparatively great. The *Croates*, the *Chrobates* or mountaineers, the ancient *Horwather* or *Horwathes* make up the population of their country; they are a branch of the great Slavonic family, but their language is much more harsh and guttural than the Servian dialects, the eastern Slavonians or Russians may be thus distinguished from the western or Polish Bohemians. The Croatian dialect is connected with those of the Bohemians

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and Slovacks in Hungary, and it is not unlikely that the inhabitants migrated from the Carpathian mountains about the seventh century. They were invited by the Emperor Heraclius to deliver Dalmatia from the yoke of the Abares or Awares. Some ancient tribes of Proto-slavonic origin, perhaps the ancestors of the Wendes might have in this way been subdued. The Croatians, thus increased in number, founded the dutchies or principalities, which they called the *Zupanias* of Carinthia, Friuli, *Liburnia* or Croatia Proper, *Jadra* in Dalmatia, Slavonia and others. These petty states yielded to Charlemagne, but were in general the allies of the Greek empire. The pope retained his spiritual authority over them after the schism between the eastern and western churches, and they borrowed from the Germans their feudal institutions. *Crescimir* or their first *archizupan* flourished in the tenth century, his son Dircislav took the title of king, and Croatia comprehended at that time the western part of Dalmatia and Bosnia. *Beligrad* or its capital appears to have been situated on the shores of the Adriatic sea, at the place now called *Zara-Vecchia* by the Venetians, and *Biograd* by the people in the country.[b] Other writers suppose however that it might have been a different town, that of *Biograd*, *Belligrad* or *Bielgrad*, situated on the banks of the Pliva, a small river that falls into the Verbas opposite Jaicza.[c]

Character, &c.

The Croatians, formerly a very warlike people, continued after the middle of the 18th century to lay waste the Ottoman territory by petty incursions, from which they returned in triumph to their villages.[d] Although compelled by the Austrian government to relinquish these amusements, they still prefer the chances of war to the labours of peace. Those that live at a distance from the Turkish frontiers

[b] Kruse's Historical Atlas. Busching, IV. 220.

[c] Busching, Erdbeschreib, II. 429. The author refers to documents in the work of Lucius de regno Dalmat.

[d] Letters on Croatia, Stats-anzeigen, I. p. 360—374.

have acquired more industrious habits. Rude and unpolished, their good qualities are obscured by the vices of savage nations,—still some of them are capable of generous and exalted sentiments, and all of them are remarkable for their fidelity to a government which accommodates itself to their prejudices. They revolted against Austria in consequence of administrative innovations in 1755, and it was impossible to restrain their fury when their country was ceded to France in 1809. Their houses without windows or chimneys may be compared to large barns, where men, women, oxen, and pigs, live under the same roof,—yet a late traveller commends them for their cleanliness. It is probable that he only visited those in the south-west of the Trans-Danubian circle.* The women are fond of ornaments, and love to deck themselves in the most varied and glaring colours. The greater number of Croatians reside in the *military limits* which shall be afterwards described. It might be inferred from the habits, customs and occupations of these men, that they belonged to an army stationed in its quarters, or suddenly impeded in its march. A journey to their country might not be unprofitable to him who would write the history of the warlike nations in the middle ages.

Towns.

Agram or the capital of Croatia, is built on a hill on the banks of the Save, and is known by the Croatian and Italian names of *Zagrab* and *Sagabria*; it was also at an earlier period called *Grecz* or *Grœtz*, which signifies a castle or a stronghold; it is now a free and royal city, the residence of the viceroy of Croatia and Slavonia. The bishop is obliged to maintain a regiment, and the colonel, who must be chosen from the canons, enjoys the triple office of commander of the fort *Dubitza*. The population of Agram amounts to 17,000 individuals, most of them are nobles. *Warasdin* is a small fortified town on the Drave; *Kœres-Vasarhely*, in Croatian *Krisevczi*, and in German *Kreux*, claims the title of capital. If the chro-

* Beudant, Voyage, I. 66.

BOOK CII.

niclers of the country can be believed, two brothers *Czech* and *Lech* left the burgh of Krapina, and founded the Polish and Bohemian monarchies. Carlstadt, a fortress on the Kulpa, is the most important of any in an extensive station commanded by a general, who is governor of Kostanitza, Petrina and a number of others, for in Croatia as in Bosnia and Dalmatia, every hill, however small, is crowned with some kind of fort. Bellovar, a town lately built, is the most agreeable of any in Croatia, and the head quarters of a general who is appointed over the fortresses of *Kapronczа*, *Zuanitz* and all those in the station of Warasdin.

The narrow country that has been sometimes called Hungarian Dalmatia, and more correctly the coast of Illyria or Croatia, contains some towns worthy of notice, among others *Fiume* or in German *St. Veit-am-Pflaum*, and in Croatian *Rekari*; it has flourished ever since a communication was opened into the interior by means of the Caroline way. That road is 65,000 yards in length, and terminates at Carlstadt; rocks levelled, abysses filled up and precipices joined by bridges, remind the traveller of the great works accomplished by the Romans. The port of Fiume holds from 1200 to 1500 vessels, and the value of the commercial exchanges exceeds four millions of florins. It is the Trieste of Hungary, and like Trieste, the customs, the language spoken by the higher orders, and in the theatre, are Italian. The access to it is rendered difficult, sometimes dangerous by the impetuous winds and storms on the *Gulf of Quarnero*. The *Zbiztri* inhabit the countries round Fiume, some writers suppose them the descendants of the ancient Carni, others of the Liburnians, and it is likely that they spoke a Slavonic dialect, which has been since changed for Italian. The other sea-ports or *Segni*, *Buccari*, *Porte-Re* and *Carlobago* are less important, although the last is situated at the extremity of the Josephine way, a road cut at a great expense on mountains formerly impervious, but on which carriages and artillery can now

Caroline way.

pass. The distances are marked by white marble pyramids, and on the top of each of them a sun dial is placed, a refreshing fountain gushes from the base. We cannot leave this part of the country without mentioning the small district of *Turopolia* or the plain of Turo, it consists of thirty-three villages, and there is not an individual in them of ignoble origin. All the inhabitants and all their descendants were ennobled by Bela the IVth. They send a special deputy to the Hungarian diet, and live under a separate government, at the head of which is a landgrave or *comes terrestris.*

The form and position of the Croatian coast have been twenty times changed by ministerial caprice, as often has the situation of the towns and ports naturally dependent on Croatia, been altered by the German statistical writers; to enter into such *minutiæ* is now unnecessary, the country has become a dependence of Hungary.

Essek, a fortified town in Slavonia, is situated on the Drave, and surrounded by marshes, which render it unwholesome. It was there that Solyman the Great constructed in 1566 a wooden bridge or rather a number of bridges and moles 2855 yards in length; the work during more than a century, was the boast of the Turks and the terror of the Hungarians. *Possega* is a royal town, *Vukovar*, *Diakovar* and *Pakratz* are large but ill-built burghs. *Ratschka*, *Brod*, *Alt-Gradisca* and other insignificant fortresses have been erected on the banks of the Save. Semlin is situated in *Syrmia* or the lowest district of Slavonia; it was a burgh in 1739, it has since become the second commercial town in Hungary. All the goods sent from Constantinople to Vienna pass through Semlin; its population, which is rapidly increasing, amounts at present to 9000 inhabitants, its trade is likely to be more extensive from its position on the Danube and its vicinity to three or four feeders which fall into that river. A medical board that is established in the town, has the power of subjecting vessels and strangers to quarantine. *Peterwaradin* or *Petervaras*, ano-

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ther town on the Danube, is important from its fortifications. Prince Eugene obtained there a signal victory over the Turks in 1716. The same people were twice routed at *Salankemen*, once in 1697, and the second time in 1716. The Greek patriarch of the Illyrian nation in Hungary resides at *Carlowitz*, a small town where a truce was concluded in 1699 between Austria, Venice, Poland and Turkey. A perpetual peace, one of the improvements or discoveries in our own times, was not then formed, it was judged wiser, considering the vicissitudes of human affairs, to enter into a truce for 25 years. *Mitrowitz*, a large village, is about two miles from the ancient *Syrmium* or the chief town of Illyricum in the time of the Romans. Twelve Greek convents of the order of St. Basil have been built in the romantic vallies of Fruska Gora.

Kingdom of Dalmatia.

Three districts on the Adriatic, at present under the Austrian government, are now called the kingdom of Dalmatia, they are connected with Croatia and Slavonia by the language and origin of their inhabitants, and they form the maritime part of the physical section in which Albania and Bosnia have been included. The districts are distinguished by their calcareous rocks, arid land, marshes and stagnant water, by the climate of Italy in some places, and in others by the cold blasts of the *Bora*,—winter is unknown, continued rains last for six weeks. The numerous gulfs abound in different kinds of fish. The most delicate flowers and shrubs ripen in the open air, the plants and fruits on the coast are olives, Corinthian grapes, and vineyards that yield sweet and strong wines. The first district is the *Ex-Venetian Dalmatia*, the second, the former territory of Ragusa, the third, the *Bocche* of *Cattaro*.

Dalmatia Proper.

Two rivers in the Ex-Venetian Dalmatia have been remarked on account of their romantic and picturesque course. The *Kerka* rises from a grotto, divides itself into many small cascades, which unite and form five large cataracts; the *Cettina* is more sombre, two of its sources issue from dark caverns, it rolls between frightful preci-

pices, and falls from the height of 150 feet into an abyss near *Velika-Gubovitza*. The different provincial courts are held at *Zara*, its harbour is well fortified, its trade consists in rosoglio, silk and wool. *Zara-Vechia* or *Biograd* is believed to have been the residence of the Croatian kings. *Sebenico* is adorned with a magnificent cathedral, and its large harbour is protected by the fort St. Nicolas. *Spalato*, a fortified town, is enclosed in the vast ruins of a palace, built by Diocletian, it is provided with a large harbour, and peopled by nearly 7000 inhabitants. The maraschino of Spalato is imported into different countries. No fresh water streams, but many sulphureous and warm springs have been discovered in the neighbourhood, and at no great distance from it are the ruins of *Salona*, a large Roman town. These are the principal places in the Dalmatian continent. The islands may be next enumerated, we shall begin with those on the north and advance southwards. *Veglia* is a long range of rocks, but in the interior are some lofty woods, extensive orchards, fruitful vineyards and valuable quarries of red marble. *Cherso* is a large calcareous hill, of which the sides are covered with vineyards and olive plantations. *Osero*, an island of the same kind, is separated from the former by a channel not more than five yards in breadth; the town of Osero was built on the island of the same name, every part of it is now situated in Cherso. Numerous flocks of sheep graze on the fertile pastures of *Arbe*, but even these animals are sometimes destroyed by the borra or cold north-wind. *Pago* may be compared from its many sections to a number of small peninsulas, its salt mines are productive, when in the possession of the French they yielded annually about 120,000 hundredweights. All these five islands lie in the stormy gulf of Quarnero, the three first are dependences of Croatia. *Grossa* abounds in vines and olives, *Caronata* exports its cheeses, *Morter* is a place of refuge for pirates, and *Bua* is remarkable for its wells of asphaltos. The large island of *Brazza* is peopled by twelve or thirteen thousand inhabitants, it produces 45,000 tuns

Towns.

Islands.

BOOK CII. of wine, a great quantity of oil, fruit, mastich, saffron and silk. *Lesina* or the ancient *Pharia* is still larger, but not so populous, it is rich in wine, and the profits derived from its sardel fisheries amount annually to 80,000 ducats. Its fine marbles, its ports, its fields fragrant with rosemary and other aromatics, render it perhaps more agreeable than any other island on these shores. *Lissa* is situated at a greater distance from the coast, it is fruitful, and its wool is valuable, but the great importance of the island depends on the harbour built and fortified by Napoleon, the late Emperor of the French. Curzola is ill provided with water, its wealth is derived from its naval timber. [f]

The Dalmatians are not an industrious people, their chief occupation is that of ship-building, they possessed in 1816 three thousand vessels and barks that plied as far as the Archipelago. Two great roads have of late years been opened, the one from *Zara* to *Kirin* and onwards to *Sign*, the other along the coast. An extensive trade is carried on in rosoglio and maraschino, which is made from the juice of acid cherries cultivated in different parts of the country, and a spiritous liquor extracted from the fruit of the arbutus tree, the most common plant on the uncultivated islands. The ordinary quantity of wine exported yearly, is said to be 650,000 Austrian *eimers*. [g] The gross profits from the sardine, thunny and mackarel fisheries are not less than L.449,950, or 17,910,000 Venetian lire.

The indigenous Dalmatian, like the Bosnian, is of Slavonic origin, but the inhabitants of the towns under the protection of Venice since the eighth century, adopted the Italian language, and have not wholly lost the customs, devotional ceremonies and jealousy of the old Italians. The *Morlacks* are a separate tribe in the interior of Dalmatia; they call themselves Vlach or Wallacians, but it is not likely that they are sprung from that people. Those who

[f] Germar, Voyage en Dalmatie, 1817.
[g] Liechtenstern, Statistics, III. p. 1830.

dwell in the north, on the banks of the *Kerka*, differ from the other Dalmatians by their fair complexion, light blue eyes, and the form of their features; it might be thought from their appearance that they were the descendants of Goths and Tartars. Such as reside in the south, near the Cettina and Narenta, may be known by their dark complexion, long visage, and black hair; both speak a Slavonic dialect, mixed with Latin and Wallachian. Two hypotheses have been formed concerning their origin. M. Engel supposes them a colony of Bulgarians, that mingled with the Wallachians, who migrated to Dalmatia about the year 1019, and were denominated *More-Vlaques* or maritime Wallachians.[h] M. Mannert traces them from the Awares, a people subdued in the seventh century, by the Slavonic Chroatians or Chrobates. Some of the vanquished remained with the conquerors, their descendants are still distinguished by the physiognomy of their forefathers.[i] It is obvious that the subdivision of the Morlaques into two distinct tribes, is not accounted for by the one or other supposition, and both for that reason appear to be incorrect; the subject may perhaps excite the attention of future travellers. *Poglitza*, a district of Dalmatia on the north-east of Spalato, retains its republican forms under the Austrian monarchy; it is inhabited by Morlaques, Hungarian and Bosnian nobles, and their number amounts to 16000 individuals. The magistrates are chosen by the people, who meet for that purpose in the *sbor* or assembly. Hungarians only are eligible to the office of *Great Count*, or the highest dignity in the state. All the Poglitzans are bred to arms, and pay a fixed tribute to the Austrian emperor.

District of Poglitza.

The republic of Ragusa is now added to Dalmatia. The ancient Epidaurus was situated in its territory, in the neighbourhood of *Molonta*.[k] Ragusa Vecchia was founded by old Roman colonists, but they were compelled by repeated

Ragusa.

[h] Mithridates, II. p. 642.

[i] Mannert's Ancient Geography of the Greeks and Romans, vol. VII. p. 305.

[k] Mannert, VII. p. 350.

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earthquakes to remove to the present town, and there, during the dark ages, the inhabitants made rapid advances in civilization, commercial industry and policy worthy of a more extensive theatre. Ragusa, under an aristocratic government, rivalled Venice in its fleets, trade and manufactures, it possessed the Dalmatian and Bosnian mines, it produced poets, geometers, painters and historians, and obtained the title of the Slavo-Illyrian Athens.[1] Conquered at last by the Venetians, having sacrificed its navy in consequence of its devoted constancy to Spain, it was visited at a later period, in 1687, by a tremendous earthquake, and has never since risen into importance. It remained under the protection of the Porte, and was destroyed, like Genoa and Venice, during the great European invasion of the French, from their hands it passed into the power of Austria.

The territory of Ragusa extends over a surface of 78 square leagues, or 702 square miles; it consists of a narrow, arid and rocky tract on the coast, some of its hills and vallies are covered with vines, olives and a great variety of fruit. The country on the north terminates in a peninsula, and is bounded by several islands. Ragusa, (*Dobrovnik*, Slav.) is built in the Italian style, and does not differ from the towns in Italy by the customs or language of its inhabitants. The ancient *palace of the republic* is still suffered to remain. The townsmen carry on a trade in silk and rosoglio; the population, including that of the suburbs, amounts probably to 15,000 individuals. The harbour of Ragusa is small, but the docks and warehouses of the Ragusans have been built at *Gravosa*, and a line of country houses extends from the capital to that port.

Towns.

Remarkable places.

The district of *Canali* is fertile in orchards, and overtopped by Mount *Sniecznicza*, on which snow is sometimes seen. The valley of *Ombla* is covered with villas, and the small town of *Stagno* is situated on two gulfs, and receives

[1] Appendini, Notizie istoriche critiche, &c. Ragusa, 1802. There is an extract from the above work by M. Depping in the Annales des Voyages.

from the northern the unwholesome exhalations that rise above the marshes of the Narenta. The peninsula of *Sabiencello* is peopled by good mariners, and the island *Agosto* is defended by natural ramparts, the inhabitants boast of their grottos and Phenician inscriptions. St. Paul, it is supposed, was shipwrecked on the island of Meleda; the pilgrims who resort to it, admire its woods and romantic lake. The small island of *Giupana* or Scipan possesses a fine harbour and abounds in fruit. Our limits prevent us from describing the festival of St. Blaise, the tutelar saint of the republic, or the laws of the *Druczina*, a fraternity of young nobles, or the patriarchal marriages of the peasants, and many other ancient Roman and Slavonic customs, that still exist in a territory of which the population is not greater than 52,000 souls.

The deep gulf of Cattaro penetrates in a winding direction between steep rocks, and receives no other feeders than mountain torrents, the declivities are covered with vineyards, fig, olive and many fruit trees; villages are interspersed throughout fertile and verdant hills, and the romantic landscape is bounded by the thick woods of Montenegro. The summers in the valley near the gulf are as warm as at Naples, the orange and the lemon tree thrive in the open air, snow is never seen, winter is not a cold but a rainy season, and even then the fields and gardens are covered with vervain, the passion flower, and many tender plants. Cattaro, a fortified town, is built near the inmost recess of the gulf, its inhabitants are distinguished by their hospitality, the fashions, manners and customs of Italy have been introduced amongst them. Debrota is entitled the *most catholic*, and its townsmen never marry with strangers. Persagno is remarkable for its fine buildings, and Perasto for its site in a natural amphitheatre. Rizano, once the chief town on the gulf, was for a long time peopled by pirates; their descendants, like the Scots highlanders, are not a polished people, but they still wear the ancient Roman costume. So great was at one time the dread of piratical invasions, that al-

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most all the habitations were confined within the *Strait of the chain*, a natural barrier that may be defended by infantry; even at present the only dwellings on the shores of the outer gulf are the village of Theodo, which consists for the most part of country houses, and the fortified but dismal town of Castel-Novo. The district of Zuppa, and the large ports of *Traste* and *Pastrovich* on the south of the *Bocche*, are peopled by an active race of men, who generally carry on predatory wars against the Montenegrines.

Bocchese.

Hungary claims the southern extremity of these maritime provinces, which, though under the Austrian government, possess a separate administration. The *Bocchese* unite with the vigorous constitution of the Slavonians, the vivacity, bigotry and jealousy of the Italians. Eager after gain, accustomed to a sea-faring life, they quit the helm or the oar for the musket, and retain in some degree the rude ferocity of barbarous nations. Their notions of justice are very vague, blood for blood appears to be their great rule, but such is their superstition, that so late as 1802, some young women, who were seduced and became pregnant before marriage, were stoned to death. Each district has its feudal privileges, all of them do not contain more than 30,000 individuals, yet a state so insignificant is divided by Catholic and Greek factions, hence probably and from the general character of its inhabitants, it has been styled the *Austrian Albania.*[m]

Transylvania.

It only remains for us to give a short account of Transylvania, which forms politically a separate state or Great Duchy, but naturally and geographically a continuation of Upper Hungary. *Siebenburgen* or the German name of the province has been the theme of many discussions, some writers maintaining that it signifies seven mountains, others seven burghs, it has also been derived from seven Hunnic chiefs, who settled in the country, and from the same num-

[m] Tableau des Bouches du Cattaro, par un officier autrichien, avec un carte. (Annales des Voyages, IV. 145.)

ber of groups or detached heights on the banks of the Rhine; some philologists insist that an ancient people, the *Sibyni*, left obscure traces of their settlements, for example, the word *Szeben* or *Cibinium*, the name of an important town. It is difficult to arrive at any conclusion on the subject, but it is certain that the Hungarians called the province *Erdely* from its relative situation to their own land; instead of that word, its Latin synonyme, *Ultra-Sylvania* was first used, and afterwards changed into Transylvania. The physical geography of the country has already been considered; its Alps, rivers, productions, and climate have been described from the scanty materials afforded us by travellers and geographers, but it is to be regretted that no full or accurate account of Transylvania has hitherto appeared. BOOK CH.

Three nations represented in the Transylvanian diet, are situated in different parts of the principality. The northern and western portion belong chiefly to the Hungarians, the country of the Szeklers extends along the eastern frontiers, and the Saxons possess the lands in the south. The Wallachians make up perhaps one-half of the population, but no particular territory has been assigned to them, they are most numerous in the central and eastern districts. Divisions.

The Saxons inhabit *Hermanstadt*, a town of 16,000 souls, regularly built, encompassed with walls, the capital of the Saxon nation in Transylvania, the residence of a military governor, and the seat of the public authorities. Among its institutions are a Lutheran seminary and gymnasium, and a learned society whose researches are confined to subjects connected with history. It was called Hermanstadt from Hermann of Franconia, a chief of the Saxon or German colony, and the reputed founder of the town; but we know no document from which it has obtained its Hungarian and Latin names or Szeben and Cibinium.[n] Towns.

The gate of the *Red Tower* is a famous pass at no great

[n] Comes Chibiensis occurs in a diploma granted by king Andrew the II.

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distance from Hermanstadt, the Aluta flows into it, and is precipitated into the plains of Wallachia. *Reps*, *Heltau*, *Rosinar*, *Gross-Schenk*, Hermanstadt and other large burghs are situated in the *Altland*, the old country or ancient colony. *Schesburgh*, (*Segesvar* Hung.) *Medwisk*, and *Birthalm* are the most remarkable places in the *Weinland*, or wine country. *Mullenbach*, *Reismarkt* and *Broos* are the principal towns in a district, which, according to the signification of its name, *fronted the forests*.

Fogaras is a well-built town in a county that belongs to the Saxons in virtue of a lease; that fact may appear strange to the national lawyers of France or England, but it should be remembered that acquired rights are still respected in one antiquated corner of Europe.

Kronstadt.

Kronstadt, (*Brassau*, Hung.) the first town in Transylvania both in point of the wealth and number of its inhabitants, contains 25,000 souls; it is partly fortified, possesses a catholic and Lutheran college, and it is said that the value of the goods bought and sold in the town amounts to 7,000,000 florins; of that sum five millions are placed to the account of the Greek Company; its manufactures are not exported to foreign countries. *Burzenland** or the tempestuous district, of which Kronstadt is the metropolis, forms the eastern extremity of Transylvania, it is partly peopled by 60,000 Wallachians. *Nosen* or *Bistritz*, a neat town with a calvinistic college, is the capital of a detached county near the frontiers of Bukowine.

Foundation of the Saxon colony.

The formation and existence of a German state surrounded by Slavonic, Wallachian and Hungarian nations, have excited the attention of geographers and historians. King Geysa the Second, invited in 1143, many German families, chiefly from Franconia, Westphalia and Thuringia, to occupy the *deserts* on the east of Hungary, and to defend the kingdom on that side from barbarous invasions. But it is said, on the other hand, that Hermann, the

* From Burza, a tempest in Slavonic, it is not unlikely that the Slovacks on the Carpathian mountains occupied the district.

founder of the town, which bears his name, assisted at the nuptials of Stephen the I. in the year 1002 or 1003. Andrew the II. granted by a diploma in 1224, to his Teutonic hosts *(hospites nostri theutonici,)* certain immunities and privileges, by which a distinct state was formed, exercising its own political and municipal rights. These grants were the cause of many struggles and wars raised and carried on by despots from the time of Bathory to Joseph the II. who declared, but in vain, that *the Saxon nation was extinct.* It is not known if the German colonists mingled in their new country with any descendants of the Goths, or observed any Slavonic villages; certain it is that they received from a liberal monarch not only the forests of the *Blaches* (Wallachians,) and *Bissenes* (Petchenegues,) but the said Blaches, and the said Bissenes themselves. The colonists employed these people to tend their flocks, no feudal burden was imposed on them, the Germans resolved to sanction no hereditary aristocracy in their settlement. The people now enjoy the blessings of civil liberty in a greater degree than the inhabitants of most states, and they participate by means of their representatives at the Transylvania diets, in the political freedom of the Hungarians.[p] Several curious laws, calculated to repress immorality among all classes of men, and luxury or effeminacy among the rich, may be found in their municipal enactments. The people are divided into fraternities, neighbourhoods and tithings; reciprocal duties are assigned to the members of these corporations. Dress, ceremonies and feasts are all regulated, and in many instances with much skill and wisdom. The higher ranks, from an eager desire of innovation, have resisted these decrees, but the Christian religion is still taught in its ancient purity, and the children learn the elements of their language in the writings of the evangelists. These Germans call themselves *Teutsche*, and the Magiars denominate them

Constitution.

Morals.

Name.

p See the Memoir entitled Der Verfassungs-Zustand der sachsischen nation in Siebenburgen; Hermannstadt, 1790. There is an analysis of the above article by Schlætzer, Staats-Anzeigen, (political Journal,) vol. XVI. p. 468, &c.

BOOK CII.

by the official Latin name of the Saxons, which has been probably handed down from the time of their Finnic ancestors.[q]

Country of the Szeklers.

The *Sicules* or *Szeklers* inhabit a country in which there are few towns, but many burghs and villages, as *Szent Miklos*[r] with its fine Armenian church, *Udvarhely* with a population of 6,000 souls, *Szent Gyorgy*, *Miklos-Var* and others.[s] *Maros-Vasarhely*, however, is an exception, it enjoys the privileges of a royal city, and one family[t] possesses a palace and a library of 60,000 volumes. The country of the Szeklers is mountainous, and although fertile in grain and fruit, many individuals in the district of Czik are compelled to migrate for a subsistence. The people, who are probably a branch of the *Patzinakites*, now speak the Hungarian. Accustomed to the occupations of war, living on the produce of their fields, they are still rude and ignorant,—some of them were guilty of the atrocities committed at Rastadt.

Country of the Hungarians.

The other towns are inhabited by Wallachians, Hungarians and Saxons. *Clausenburg*, (*Kolos-Var*, Hung.) the second city in Transylvania, is peopled by 20,000 souls; it is the place at which the diets of the principality are usually held, and possesses a catholic university and two seminaries, the one under the direction of the Calvinists, the other belonging to the Socinians or Unitarians. Matthias Corvin was born in the town. *Szamos-Falva* is protected by two citadels, and *Apafi-Falva* was the birth place of the Apafian princes, the last monarchs of Transylvania. *Thorda* is inhabited by 6500 individuals, and is situated in the vicinity of a valuable salt mine. *Szent-Miklos* on the Kokol is defended by two castles. *Zalatna* or *Zlatna* is built in a fruitful country. *Enyed* or, according to its German name, *Strasburg* has still its calvinistic academy and gymnasium. *Toroszko*

[q] The Germans were known to the Finns by the name of Saxa-Lainen; Germany was called Saxan-Maa. Juslenii Fennici Lexici Tentamen, p. 332.

[r] Saint Michael. [s] Saint George. [t] Count Teleky.

and *Koræs-Banya* are mining towns in a district rich in gold. The flourishing burgh of *Deva* is not far from the *Iron Gate* or *Vas-Kapa*, a well-known pass that leads to the plain of Temeswar. *Karlsburg* is an important stronghold near Weissenberg, in the fort are the tombs of the Hunyades or Corvins, in the burgh are a college and an astronomical observatory.[u] The court that presided over the mines in Transylvania was for a long time held at *Abrud-Banya* or *Gross-Schlatten*. *Szamos-Uivar* or *Armenian-stadt* is mostly peopled by Armenians. Ruins and heaps of stones near *Gradichtie* mark the site of the ancient capital of Dacia, the *Sarmizagethusa* of the Dacians, and the *Ulpia-Trajana* of the Romans.

Name of the Carpathian mountains.

Having concluded these topographical details, we shall make one or two observations on the name of the Carpathian mountains; that name, first mentioned in the writings of Ptolemy, was not unknown to the earliest geographers of Greece. The island of Karpathos and the adjacent sea are described in the poems of Homer; and it is worthy of remark, that the word has undergone the same metathesis in Greek and in the Slavonic dialects. Thus the Poles and Bohemians say *Krapac*, which is pronounced in the same manner as Krapatz, while the Russians and Servians, if they had been the inhabitants of these regions, must, from the nature of their language, have called them *Karpat*. The same term has perhaps some analogy to *chrebet*, (mountains in Russian,) or *chrapien*, to ascend, and *chropawy*, uneven in Polish, to the names of the *Chrobates*, *Chorwates* and other states. The Greek name of the Riphean range might have been at one time synonymous with it. We do not affirm the truth of these statements, but many of them are very probable, and it is certain that some Greek traditions relative to the Riphean mountains are not inapplicable to those in Hungary and Transylvania.

[u] Busching, II. 580. Recent geographers have confounded the fort and the town.

BOOK CIII.

EUROPE.

Hungary concluded. Researches on the Origin of the Hungarians. Remarks on the Provinces annexed to Hungary.

BOOK CIII.

SOME account has been given of the different states subject, united or added to Hungary. Little has hitherto been said concerning the origin or migrations of the Hungarians; it was thought best to defer the consideration of that subject, from the conviction that it is as intricate as any in the geography of nations.

Hungarians.

The Hungarians entered the basin of the Theiss and the Danube by the plain now protected by the forts of *Ungh-Var* and *Munkatsch*; they invaded all the low country, and left the mountainous districts on the north and north-west to the Slovacks, once the subjects of the Moravian or *Maravanian* monarchy. They advanced on the south-west to the base of the Styrian and Croatian mountains, and met in these regions Slavonic tribes, the Wends and Croatians. The Hungarians were accustomed to a pastoral life, and possessed numerous flocks and herds, for which the large plains were well adapted. The same country had been successively subdued by the Pannonians, Sarmatians, Huns and Awares; but several Hungarian tribes inhabited, probably at an early period, the mountains in the north-west of Transylvania, or the basin of the two Szamos, which was called Black Hungary in the year 1002, or at the time of its union with Hungary

Proper. It has been seen that the Szecklers in the eastern part of Transylvania are a Hungarian or semi-Hungarian tribe, that have existed in their present country since the ninth century. The population of the whole nation, including the Cumanians and *Jazyges*, amounts to four millions, of whom nearly 500,000 are settled in Transylvania.

Character.

The Hungarians are not a tall race of men, but active, muscular and robust; the people, the nobles, all the Magiars are renowned for martial valour and patience in enduring the fatigues of war. Their gaiety or mirth is not that of polished nations, but the effect of military habits and imperfect civilization.

Nobles.

The higher classes, who are not strangers to European refinement, possess immense revenues, and are attached, by their connexion or titles, to the court of Vienna. They imitate whatever may dazzle the multitude in the customs or fashions of the German, French and English nobles. They vie with each other in the pomp and magnificence of their feasts, and in the number of their retinue, affect patriotism in imitation of the English, ride in more costly carriages than the German courtiers, and distinguish themselves in the diets by an energetic or, at all events, a noisy opposition against the Austrian cabinet. But it is evident that they can gain nothing from a political change, and that there is really little difference between them and the Gallician or Austrian nobility. The poorer nobles form a separate class, residing from choice or necessity in the country. They cultivate their farms, speak the national language, maintain the national privileges, and desire eagerly that they may be strengthened and increased. The most of them are protestants, and the protestants are divided into Calvinists and Lutherans.

National character.

All the Hungarian nobles, rich and poor, are distinguished by their frankness and hospitality. The lord of a wide domain, and the baron who cultivates his own acres, receive the stranger with the same cordiality. A traveller that can speak the language, might traverse the whole kingdom

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without entering an inn; but he must lay aside the magisterial gravity of the Germans, and the haughty reserve of the English,—he must drink wine out of the same glass as his host, partake of national dishes, and smoke a pipe after dinner. The Austrians are prejudiced against the Hungarians, and those who visit Hungary live in inns, which are in general very bad, a natural inconvenience in a country rarely frequented by travellers. Some German towns may form an exception to the rule, in them the fashions of other lands prevail. But whoever remains with the Hungarians accommodates himself to their customs, converses with them in their language, is likely to become their friend; he may share in their joy,—their calamities are not concealed from him.

Peasants.

The peasantry form the great mass of the people, their costume is well fitted for a cold climate and a pastoral life. The *guba*, a large woollen cloak, defends them against the inclemencies of the season; and the *kalpak* or felt cap, which is now worn by horsemen and even by kings, still retains among the peasants its ancient Tartar or Finnic shape. A wallet hangs from the shoulder, and every man carries the *valaska*, a small hatchet with a long handle, an instrument which they wield dextrously.[a] No alteration has perhaps taken place in the dress of the *Iouhasz* or peasants since the time they fought in the armies of Attila.

They still retain their Tartar customs, and rarely if ever enter an inn; when travelling, they sleep in the open air, in their carts or near their flocks; at home, a bench or a heap of hay serves for a bed. The hogs, which supply them with food, are kept in the same house, and only separated by a trellis from their owners. The epidemic diseases and fevers so prevalent in Lower Hungary may depend perhaps as much on the people's manner of living as on the climate; but whatever may be the cause of the diseases, they are less fatal to the natives than to foreigners.

[a] Bredetzky, Beiträge, II. 8.

The gay and mirthful character of the Hungarians is evinced in their frequent and noisy meetings, in their dances, some of which are intricate, others of a dramatic character. Their songs are not unlike what the Greeks called *amoibaea;* they consist of questions and answers well adapted for the condition of the persons that sing them. Although neither their dances nor their songs can be compared with those of Arcadia or the vales of Tempe, an Hungarian Theocritus might derive from them the materials of a pastoral poem.

Hungarian or Magian language.

It is to be regretted that so few facts characteristic of the nation can be collected from the writings of travellers; we shall endeavour to supply their want of information on the subject of the Magiar language, which is not, as has been affirmed, a *medley of all the Asiatic* and *European tongues,* or *a virgin without a mother* and *without kindred.* It and the sister dialects may be traced from the shores of Lapland to the countries beyond the Uralian mountains, and the lands on the banks of the Wolga. The language is allied to the Finnic, Permiac, Wogul and others that are included under the general name of the *Tchoude* or Finnic, a vague and inapplicable term, which has not hitherto been substituted by a better. Comenius, Stralenberg and Fischer were not ignorant of the connexion between these tongues, but the fact was completely proved by Sainovics, who accompanied Hell the Jesuit, in his astronomical mission to Cape North in 1769. The Hungarian traveller observed with surprise that he could partly make out what the Laplanders said, and that they were often able to understand his meaning. M. Sainovics then began to study a Laponic Grammar written by M. Leem, a Dane, and some other works published in the north. He proved afterwards the identity of several vocables, showed that a striking resemblance subsisted between others, and concluded that the Hungarian and Laplandic dialects were the same;[b] but his incorrect

[b] Demonstratio idioma Hungarorum et Laponum *idem* esse, by Sainovics; Copenhaguen, 1770.

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hypothesis was fully refuted by M. Gyarmathy, a Hungarian.[c] The analogy is not confined to words, but is observable in the grammatical forms, in the declensions of substantives, in the relations of possessive pronouns, and in the position of conjunctions and interrogatives by *suffixa* or syllables added to the end of words. The same language has been compared by M. Klaproth with the dialects of the Ostiaks in the neighbourhood of Berezow, and of other tribes between the Ural mountains and the river Obi.[d] The ancient *Iongouria* was peopled by these tribes, and their descendants retained many Hungarian words, which were unknown to more polished Finnic nations. M. Klaproth has collected several of the words used by the Samoydes, which correspond with others in Hungarian.

Resemblance between the Hungarian and Armenian.

The connexion between the Hungarian and the Turkish is not nearly so remarkable as its grammatical resemblance with the Armenian. The plural nominatives in *k* are formed in the two languages in the same manner, and produce the same cacophony; the terminations of the datives are not unlike, and the perpetual repetition of the harshest consonants is more grating to the ear in the Hungarian than in the Armenian verb. The words, it is admitted, are very different, how comes it then, that the grammatical structure is so much alike, particularly as it accords ill with a language in other respects so harmonious as the Hungarian? We have lastly to mention a connexion hitherto unknown, that subsists between the Hungarian and Scandinavian, which have been considered wholly foreign to one another; we have however been able to discover a great many words common to both, and such as could not have been introduced by civilized nations or in later times, but in those early ages, when the Huns, Goths, Iotes and Magiars assembled round the altars of Wodin.[e] Thus

[c] Affinitas Linguæ Hungaricæ cum linguis finnicæ originis grammatice demonstrata; Gœttingæ, 1799.

[d] Asia polyglotta, &c. Finnic languages, p. 188.

[e] We shall cite a few examples in which the Hungarian words are printed in Italics, and the Scandinavian in Roman characters, *ag*, a river;

the Hungarian though connected with other tongues is not on that account less interesting. It is harmonious, rich, flexible, and admirably adapted for the natural eloquence of the people who speak it. Several literary and scientific journals are at present published in the country, historians and poets might be enumerated among the Hungarian writers. It is the ordinary language of the diet, the Austrians, it is true, wish to continue the Latin, which was supposed to be better understood by the German and Slavonian inhabitants.

Government, political institutions.

The nobles may be divided into two classes, the lords of extensive domains and others who cultivate their farms. The priesthood is composed of archbishops, bishops, abbots, deans and commendataries. The inhabitants of free and royal towns, privileged burghs, and the members of some petty corporations are represented. The body politic, or what is styled in the language of the diet, the *Populus Hungaricus*, is made up of these classes; they have the right of electing a king if the reigning family become extinct, and possess in common with their sovereign the power of making laws. All the taxes are regulated in the diets, which must be assembled every three years. The rest of the people or the *Misera contri-*

aa, id.; *aszoni*, a woman; asynia, a goddess; *alunni*, to sleep; lugn, luun, tranquillity, repose; *bor*, wine; bior, beer; *eg*, heaven, eyglo, sun, (Iotic), ey everlasting; *elet*, life; *elem*, I live; el, to beget; *essæ*, rain; æse, to rain; *elein*, an elk, elend in German, els in Danish; *estwe*, evening; sol-est, sunset in Jutlandic, (Normanno-Iotic;) *fu*, a tree; vallarfax, a forest; *fœld*, the earth; fold, id.; *felsæ* and *fell*, lofty; fiell, a mountain; *feyer*, white, fagr in Scandinavian, hence the English word fair; *feketc*, black; feigr and feikr, (Solarliod, str. 36;) *feri*, a man; fir, id.; (Edda:) *hay*, hair; *haar*, id.; *had*, war; had, hatred, a feud; *hegy*, a mountain; hœy, a hill; *heves*, warm; hver, a warm spring, (Islandic;) *hold*, the moon; hvel, a wheel or circle; *iol*, good; iont, goodly, (Jut.;) *level*, a leaf; lœv, foliage; *magas*, high, great, magt, megin, power, &c.; *menny*, the heavens; mœnning, the ceiling, (Jut.;) *nyak*, the neck; nakke, id.; *ærsz*, autumn; hœst, harvest; *szarv*, a horn; skaur, a peak, and skarp, sharp; *ezulum*, I speak; thula, a discourse, and thulr, an orator; *tel*, winter; tœl and tiela, land covered with ice; *var*, a strong castle; varde, a high and fortified station. Several German words, introduced into the Hungarian at a later period, are collected in the Mithridates of Adelung.

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buens plebs pay imposts and enjoy no political privileges. The monarch may make peace or war, but he must first hear the opinion of the nation; he can command the nobles to take up arms on any emergence, but every extraordinary contribution must be granted by the diet.[f] The king swears to maintain the constitution, and signs the diploma of king Andrew, but protests against the article which renders it lawful for the Hungarians to have recourse to arms, if their privileges be infringed.[g] The sovereign is obliged to confirm the decisions of the judicial courts, and it is unlawful for him to punish or impose a penalty on any individual, unless he be legally tried. He must defend the kingdom against every hostile invasion, and restore such of its ancient provinces as may be gained by the chance of war; in short Hungary is an independent and mixed monarchy.

Hungarian diet.

The Hungarian diet consists of two chambers or *tablcs*. The peers and the clergy are the members of the one, the deputies of the 52 counties or *varmegycs*, and the representatives of the free towns sit in the other. Each county sends two members to the diet, and they are elected by the nobles. The absent peers avail themselves of an ancient abuse, and send substitutes who represent them in the lower house. The diet is divided into four classes or *orders*, the members vote in the class to which they belong, and all questions are carried or rejected in each order by a majority. The deputies must act conformably to the instructions of their constituents.

The different classes in the nation enjoy different privileges. The noble, as *citizen of the state*, may possess land in any part of the kingdom, but the burgess, as citizen of a town, can only acquire heritable property within the jurisdiction of a burgh. When the heirs male of a domain are extinct, it returns to the crown, but so long as these heirs remain, any of them, like the manorial lords in Nor-

f Diploma granted by Leopold, art. 13. Articles of 1608, art. 2.

g Diploma Andreæ, art. 31. Quod si vero nos, &c.

way, can buy back the land sold by their ancestors at the price given for it; thus the improvement of agriculture and the circulation of capital are impeded by an absurd law of the northern states. The nobles cannot be arrested without the warrant of a judge, and then only for capital crimes. They are exempt from every ordinary contribution, and are the only class in the kingdom eligible to every office in the state.

Provincial administration.

The government of the provinces is in a great measure independent of the crown. Thirteen palatines or *ispans* possess their dignities by hereditary right, and those who hold the highest offices in the counties, are elected and paid by the provincial *congregations* or assemblies. The towns have their municipal privileges and supreme courts. Every office must be filled by a native, foreigners can only be naturalized by the diet.

Condition of the peasants.

The Hungarian peasants, the descendants of wandering shepherds cultivated the ground and retained their freedom; they might quit the land of one lord and settle in the domain of another, that privilege was confirmed by many enactments,[h] but personal and perpetual servitude was the punishment inflicted on the revolted peasantry. Frequent opportunities were not wanting of enforcing the law and increasing the number of bondsmen on the estates of the nobles during the rebellions in the reign of Uladislaus. The great majority of the country people remained however in the condition of hired labourers or farmers. Many entered into contracts by which they agreed to till the ground, some for their maintenance, others for a stipulated sum, and it was unlawful for them to leave the land until the advances made by the proprietors had been paid, nor could they be turned out of their farms until they were indemnified for their labour. Thus the dependence was reciprocal, and the peasants in different countries of Europe were exposed to privations unknown to the servants or tenantry of an upright Hungarian landlord.

[h] "Jus liberæ emigrationis." Decrees of Sigismond, 1405, Ferdinand the First in 1541 and 1550, Maximilian the First in 1566.

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Urbarium.

But it frequently happened that the contracts were incorrectly interpreted from the vague manner in which the mutual obligations were specified. The labour, which according to this system supersedes monied rent, is regulated and determined in the *Urbarium*, a rural code published under the auspices of Mary Theresa in 1764. Personal servitude was abolished by a decree of Joseph the II. in 1795, and the diet re-established under Leopold in the exercise of its privileges, ratified generously all the enactments, of which the object was to protect the peasantry, or to better their condition. It did not sanction the right of acquiring heritable property granted to every Hungarian by Joseph the II., much less did it agree to equalise the imposts on all the lands. "These differences," said the nobles, "constitute our privileges, they may be taken away from any amongst us guilty of a capital crime, but what crime have we committed? The kingdom of Hungary is as independent of Austria, as Hanover is of England. We obey no emperor, Joseph the II. is not our king, he has not taken the oaths, he has not been crowned, he is an usurper."[i] Such were the *respectful* remonstrances that the philosophic despot heard on his death-bed, he revoked his decrees, abolished his reforms, and gave up his plan in despair. But the nation, now in the full possession of all its prerogatives, may perhaps consider the evil consequences of a system by which landed property is exclusively confined to nobles or *state-citizens;* it may at last learn how much the value of land and its products has been increased in other countries where the husbandmen enjoy civil rights, and have a greater interest in the fields that they labour. The nobles boast of imitating the English, and it can hardly be supposed that the abuses committed by their stewards, the vexatious oppression of village justices, and the arbitrary exactions of tax collectors, are concealed from them. It is certain that the rights and

[i] Schlætzer, Staats Anzeigen, vol. XIV. p. 121, XV. 336, &c.

privileges which place them so high above all their neighbours, might be rendered more durable, if they were extended to every order of the community.

Religious liberty.

The Hungarians are in possession of religious liberty, more than a half of the population profess the catholic faith, and the dignitaries of that church enjoy many valuable political rights; places are assigned to them in the diets, and they are considered in these assemblies the great *pillars* of the court party. The archbishop of Gran possesses an annual revenue of L. 30,000; the metropolitan of Kolocza has not more than a seventh part of that sum. The income of the bishop of Erlau is about L.20,000, the see of Gross-Waradin is worth nearly L.8400, and the average annual value of the dioceses is from L.4000 to L.4200. It may be easily believed that the first families in the country canvass for these offices. A king passed a law by which the bishopric of Erlau was set apart for the fourth son of the reigning prince. Many bishops are governors of the provinces in which they reside, and others possess monopolies on wine and salt. But although the catholic clergy have so many advantages, they are not actuated by Christian charity towards the other sects. Enemies of religious freedom, they oppose every privilege claimed by heretics; but it must not be imagined that they are sufficiently powerful to oppress them, or destroy their lawful rights. The Protestants are mostly Calvinists; among those of that persuasion are many noble families, and the doctrines of the Genevese reformer are preached in every part of the kingdom. The Lutheran creed is chiefly confined to the miners and German artisans, and exists in all the rigour of the sixteenth century. The Lutheran ministers cannot conceal their animosity against the Calvinistic preachers. The Catholic party avails itself of their strifes and contentions, and the remonstrances of Protestants to the diet are as numerous and ineffectual as the Catholic petitions that are presented to the British parliament. It is evident from the sermons of the priests, the diocesan charges and the public edicts of the

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bishops, that they deplore the spread of evangelical doctrines. The Greek or eastern church by which the seeds of Christianity were first sown in Hungary, has been for a long time in a state of decay; more than a third of its members have apostatized to the Roman faith, but it still retains a majority of the inhabitants in the most southern provinces. The united Greek rites are observed by the Rousniacs and their neighbours the Wallachians.

Different sects in Transylvania.

Transylvania is represented by a separate diet, its members are Szecklers, (all of whom without distinction of birth are eligible,) the deputies of the free Saxon nation, and some Hungarian nobles. Catholics, Calvinists and Lutherans are represented, and an Unitarian church, the only one in the world, which has existed since the time of Socinus, is acknowledged by law in Transylvania. Most of the Wallachians, the greater number of inhabitants in the province, profess the united Greek religion, but from some strange caprice their church is only tolerated.

Civil and political institutions.

The institutions in Hungary retain all the vigour and all the inflexibility of the middle ages. Changes or improvements cannot without much difficulty be introduced. Little or no alteration has been made in the universities, gymnasia or schools. The influence of an ignorant priesthood is exerted in all the catholic seminaries, and monks have their doubts on the propriety of using astronomical instruments made by heretics. The danger of innovation, the fear of misapplying or of eventually losing the funds left by pious individuals for benevolent purposes, paralyse the efforts of the protestants,—still knowledge advances, the Hungarian patriots are animated by a noble zeal, the poor are instructed without the aid, sometimes in defiance of authority, improvements made in other countries are adopted, libraries are formed for the use of the common people.

Industry, manufactures.

If industry be still in its infancy, it must be imputed to long intellectual darkness, and to the restrictions imposed by corporations on individual talent. If articles of primary necessity be excepted, and to these may be added

goubas or woollen cloaks, *zischmas* or Hungarian boots, tobacco pipes and chaplets, the other products of industry are few and insignificant; the cloth, glass, and stone-ware of Hungary are much inferior to the same articles in Austria. But good soap is made in the country, and the dressing of leather furnishes employment to a great many men. The linen manufactured by the burgesses in Upper Hungary proves the superiority of the German artisans, and a very lucrative trade in that article is carried on in the county of *Zips*. The climate of Hungary is well adapted for silk, but the quantity produced is inconsiderable. We have already taken notice of the brandy, maraschino and other spirituous liquors made in Slavonia and Dalmatia, the inhabitants are equally skilled in extracting balsams and odoriferous resins from different herbs. The workmen and individuals who live by trade in Hungary, amount, according to a recent calculation, to 40,000, but the number is daily increasing.

Commerce.

The natural productions of the country, its oxen, corn, wine, wool and metals afford the materials of an extensive commerce, but there is no sure outlet for it except Austria and the provinces attached to the Austrian empire. Thus the wines are sent to Poland, and the corn to Italy. The Hungarians have no commercial dealings with their neighbours. The Gallicians do not require wheat or cattle, the Turks are well enough provided with them in their own country. The Austrians have fettered the Hungarian corn trade, and the people can only export a small quantity of grain. The distance and the state of the roads between a great part of Hungary and Trieste preclude the interchange of commodities. The carriage duties, and other expenses are equal to the value of the merchandise. It may be urged that Hungary is watered by many fine rivers; unfortunately however, their course is contrary to the direction of its commerce; had the Danube flowed westwards, or had its navigation been free and not obstructed by the Turks, additional channels might have been created for the produce of labour. The conquest of Bos-

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nia, by opening the communication with Venetian Dalmatia, might be the means of increasing the commerce of Hungary. But of all these impediments, the restrictions imposed by Austria are the most effectual. The Austrians, unable to make the Hungarians relinquish their freedom or national privileges, console themselves by treating them as foreigners in all the custom houses throughout the empire.

Jealousy of Austria.

"Hungary," says the Austrian cabinet, "may be considered a depot for our raw materials, and an outlet for our manufactures." In conformity to that principle, the Hungarian is not only forced to purchase different articles of Austrian manufacture, which he might have at a cheaper rate and of a better quality in other countries, but when he sends his own goods to Vienna, he must pay higher and more exorbitant duties than those exacted from the Poles. It is not difficult to show the fatal consequences of so bad a system. The Hungarians see their rich pastures covered with cattle, their cellars filled with wine, and their granaries stored with corn, but, as these articles must be sold for whatever price is put upon them at Vienna, they are not solicitous of improving the agriculture of their country. The noble is satisfied if his revenue cover his expenditure, and never thinks of making his land more productive. The peasant labours merely to provide for his immediate wants. The Hungarian patriots accuse the reigning family of ingratitude to a people that have often been their only defence, and whose love of independence is never formidable but when they are unjustly treated. The Austrians hear such complaints and reply to them. "Our monarchy consists of several federate states, and each retains its privileges, rights and institutions. If these concessions were granted to Hungary, a country so highly favoured by nature, all the wealth and resources of the empire might be concentrated in a single province." The exports from Hungary amount to 24,000,000 florins, its imports to 18,000,000. The internal taxation, which the Austrian financiers think much too low, is regulated by the diet.

The taxes paid by the farmers or peasantry are oppressive, they are said to be about 5,000,000 florins. The regal rights on salt yield 6,000,000, the net produce of the custom house is equal to 4,000,000, and the total revenue is not less than 20,000,000.

Army.

The military establishment in Hungary is made up of 46,000 infantry and 17,000 hussars; but it might raise on any emergence a hundred thousand good troops, and to that number Transylvania might add twenty thousand. A long line of frontier from Dalmatia to Bukowine, is guarded by a sort of *perpetual camp;* these districts are called the *military limits,* all the inhabitants are soldiers and at the same time husbandmen. The lands which they cultivate are hereditary possessions, that cannot be subdivided. A family or a number of families forms a *house* or society, in which the oldest member exercises, under the title of *gospodar,* a patriarchal power. The money, flocks and moveables of a society are held in common by all the members; and if a girl marries any one of a different *house* than that to which she belongs, she can claim no more than a wedding garment for her dower. Every member must contribute by his labour to the common stock. The number of merchants or rather hucksters and priests is limited by the laws, and whoever absents himself without the permission of his *gospodar* is considered a deserter. The people are clever, sprightly, but ill-informed, and the nature of their military government is unfavourable to civilization. The country forms a part of Hungary or Transylvania, for that reason, the towns in the military limits have been mentioned in our account of these provinces.

Military limits.

Origin of the Hungarians.

It is not easy to trace the origin of the Hungarians, or to discover from what part of Asia or Europe they came to the banks of the Danube. The Hungarian language is an undoubted proof that the mass of the nation consisted of *Finno-Uralian* tribes; that part of the same language which is not connected with the Finnic dialects, might have been introduced by other tribes, the Turks, Mongols or Huns that mixed with the Magiars. All these opinions have

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been ably supported.[k] Some writers have penetrated into the mysterious east, and one Hungarian has maintained that his countrymen are of Egyptian origin;[l] he might have concluded with equal probability that they have migrated from the *Maghada*, the banks of the Ganges, or the country of the Magi in Persia. Leaving these doubtful conjectures, we shall endeavour to draw some inferences, which have not hitherto been deduced, from the facts stated by historians and geographers concerning the early migrations of the Hungarians or Magiars.

Historical Summary.

The *Ouni* inhabited the northern shores of the Caspian sea in the first century of the Christian era, and a hundred years afterwards they were settled on the banks of the Borysthenes. These people were in all probability the Huns who rendered themselves illustrious in the fourth and fifth centuries; they occupied the same countries, they were distinguished by the same names. Of a different origin from the Goths, they waged continual war with the fair Alani and Ostrogoths. The Huns, according to Jornandes, the Herodotus of the Goths, were sprung from the demons of the forests and Gothic sorceresses, driven from their homes, and exiled by their countrymen. If this tradition be interpreted, it means that the Huns lived in forests, and were addicted to magic. Such was the character given by Tacitus of the Finns, and, if there be a well-attested fact in the semi-fabulous history of the Scandinavians, the same arts were practised by the people that inhabited forests and caverns in the countries to the north of the Goths. The Huns were not Slavonians, the latter revolted and took up arms against them, unless then they be of a different origin from any of these people, they must be considered a branch of the Finns or Tchoudes. The descriptions left by historians of their personal deformities

Relation with the Finns.

[k] Bel, de vera origine Hunnorum, Avar. et Hunger. Leipsic, 1757. Fischer, Quæstiones Petropolit. 1770. Desguignes, Histoire des Huns; Pray, Annales Hunnorum, dissertatio quarta.

[l] Thomæ, Conjecturæ de origine, prima sede et migrationibus Hungarorum, Pesth, 1802.

are more illustrative of the Mongols than the Tchoudes; but some allowance must be made for the terror and alarm excited by the devastating Huns, and, at all events, the historical statements are only applicable to one dominant Mongol tribe, and many others composed of Finnic vassals. Whatever is known concerning the early migrations of the Huns and Hungarians may in this way be easily explained. The rapid power of the first cannot be attributed to a sudden, mysterious and inconceivable invasion, but to a union of all the ancient tribes in Russia against the fair sons of Wodin, who branded their enemies with the reproachful epithet of dogs or *hunds*, a corruption of their national name, *khun* or people. It is not wonderful if many hordes remained after the death of Attila in the provinces of his empire. Jornandes mentions the Hunni-Var in the north-east of Hungary, who may be considered the founders of the Hungarian nation.[m] The Magiars were sent for in the eighth century to combat the Moravians, and they found the country peopled by their brethren. Thus it is easy to account for the immense number of these barbarians, which cannot be explained according to any other hypothesis. The Sabiri, another horde of the same race, remained in the north of Caucasus. A Byzantine writer mentions their destructive invasions into Asia, but calls them the *Samen*, which corresponds with the word *Suomen*, or the name given by all the Finnic nations to the countries they inhabited.[n] The assertion of another Byzantine author is not improbable; according to him, the Awares consisted chiefly of *Ougres* or Hungarians, that made up so many vassal tribes.[o] The *Hunugari* were Hunnic vassals or the same as the Ougres; their descendants, the inhabitants of *Iougoria*, a country between the Uralian mountains and the river Obi

[m] Jornandes, de Reb. Get. Bel. prodrom. Hung. l. II. sect. 1.

[n] Theophanes, Corp. Byzant. VI. p. 110. Malala calls them Ugni. Ibid. XXIV. part ii. p. 44.

[o] Theophilact. Corp. Byzant, III. p. 259, lib. vii. cap. 8.

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were subdued by the Russians of Novgorod about the year 1150. Many Hungarian words are still retained in the dialect of the Wogulitzes and Ostiakes, the present inhabitants. The Huns, although of Finnic origin, were connected with the Turks of Mount Altai; it cannot now be ascertained whether they conquered or were subdued by that people; but if they formed part of the Turkish empire or *Tu-Kiou*, they must have been denominated Turks. Hence the mixed nature of their language, and the name applied to them by the Byzantine historians,[p] and the Scandinavian traditions concerning the Turks that were confounded with the Huns, whose hordes, it is said, penetrated into Scandinavia.[q] The Turkey or *Tyrkland* of the Islandic writers was situated on the south and south-east of *Biarmaland* or Permia and the high mountains that limit great *Svithiod.*[r] The great Hungary, described by travellers of the middle ages, and particularly by Roubruquis, included the countries on the southern Uralian mountains; but at an unknown epoch, anterior to the power of the Turks of Altai, Hungary must have extended further on the north and south-east. The Iougouria, mentioned in Russian history, formed a part of the country. The town of *Egregia* or *Egrygaya*, the stumbling block of the commentators on Marco Paulo, retains its Hungarian name, which is at present common to several burghs in the kingdom.

Conclusion.

The Ougres, Ungres or Hungarians were then a branch of the Hunnic confederacy and of the Uralian race, which for want of a better name, has been termed Finnic; in the same manner the Saxons are of Teutonic origin, but are included by historians among the Germans from their connexions with that people.

[p] The Byzantine writers call them Turks.

[q] Suhm Origine des peuples du Nord, II. 60, 72, 381, &c.

[r] *Svithiod hin Mikla* shall be more fully mentioned in another part of our work.

It may be worth while to observe if the Hungarian traditions accord with the conclusion derived from the testimony of historians and geographers.

Magiar traditions.

We learn from the old national songs of the Magiars that three countries are situated in the heart of Scythia, *Dent* or *Dentu*, *Moger* or *Magar* and *Bostard*. The inhabitants of these regions are clothed in ermine, gold and silver are as common as iron, the channels of the rivers are covered with precious stones. *Magog*, the eastern neighbour of *Gog*, was a grandson of *Japheth*, and the first king of Scythia. According to a different tradition, Magor and Hunor,[s] the first Scythian monarchs, left a hundred and eight descendants, the founders of as many tribes. *Ethele* or Attila was sprung from Japheth, and Ugek from Attila. The second migration of the Hungarians from Scythia took place under the son of Ugek or Almus, whose birth was foretold in a dream; the first happened in the time of Attila.[t] A redundant population was the cause of these migrations. Two thousand men departed from every one of the 108 tribes, and the total number amounted to 216,000, who were divided into seven armies, each of which was made up of 30,857 warriors, commanded by seven princes or dukes, the *Hetou Moger* or the seven Magiars. The names of the leaders, which are still preserved, were *Almus*, *Eleud*, *Kundu*, *Ound*, *Tosu*, *Tuba* and *Tuhutum*.[u] The Hungarians passed the Wolga, near the town of *Tulbora*, and marched on *Sousdal*, which might have been the same as *Susat*, the ancient capital of Attila's empire. They removed from that place and settled in Lebedias, probably in the neighbourhood of *Lebedian*, a

[s] Their names signify literally lords (*or* and *our*) of the Magiars and Huns.

[t] Anonymous Belæ, Not. cap. 1, 3, 5, 11, 14, 16, 44, 46. Schwadner, Scriptor, rer. Hungar. t. i. Thurocz, Chronica Hung. Pray. Annales Hunn. Avar. et Hungar. p. 310.

[u] Some of these names denote the tribes. Kunda and Oundja are well-known rivers. Tuba is a considerable feeder of the Jenisii. But Eleud is not to be confounded with *Eleuthes* or *Oeloet*, the word may be otherwise explained in the Hungarian language.

BOOK CIII.

town in the government of Varonez (Woronesch.) They were invited from their new territory by king Arnolphus of Germany to combat Sviatopolk, king of Great Moravia. Duke Almus put himself at the head of an army, passed through the country of the Slavonians in *Kiovia* (Kiow,) defeated the troops that opposed him, and reached the confines of Hungary by the Russian principality of Lodomiria or Wladimir. Arpad, his son, crossed the Carpathian mountains, and invaded the country on the Upper Theiss, which is now protected by the fortress of Ungh-Var, that was built in 884. But according to another account the Hungarians entered Transylvania in 862, and were driven from it in 889 by the Patzinakites or Petchenegues. These tribes, however, were not perhaps under the dominions of Arpad.

Remarks on the Hungarian traditions.

Such is the history of the Hungarian migrations according to their own traditions, which unfortunately are disregarded and rejected by the monks, the only persons who could have preserved them entire. The conclusions at which we formerly arrived, are not invalidated by what has been now stated. The three regions, *Dentu*, *Mager* and *Bostard* were *Tenduch* or *Turfan*, Great Hungary or the country of the Magiars, and Baschirs or *Baskkurst*, the *Pascatir* of Rubruquis. The first was ruled by kings of the Unghs, and the second was the earliest known country of the Magiars. It follows from these statements that the Hungarians must have occupied at one time a very extensive country, but the details are not for that reason incorrect; on the contrary, other facts, independently of the seven princes and the seven tribes appear to corroborate them. When compared with the statements of different historians, and combined with our hypothesis concerning the Huns and Finns, the migrations of the Hungarians across Russia, then peopled by hordes of the same race, and their settlements in the Hunni-Var, cannot be thought improbable or fabulous. The epoch of the migration, which is said to have taken place before the year 800, may not be accurately known; but it may be

Dates.

maintained, without inquiring whether the early exploits of the Huns under Attila were confounded with the achievements of the Magiars, that the latter possessed Lebedias longer than is generally believed. The passages in Constantine Porphyrogenetes concerning the respective countries of the *Mazares*, *Chazares* and Russians in the early part of the tenth century, are very obscure; still according to the text, and exclusively of every arbitrary correction, they prove, in our opinion, that the Magiars inhabited the banks of the Upper Don after the Ougres, whom the Byzantines confounded with the Turks, were settled in the Hunni-Var. As we cannot enter into the long discussions to which the subject might lead, it only remains for us to state briefly the causes or events by which the limits of Hungary have at different times been altered.

Rise of the Hungarian monarchy.

The irruptions of the Hungarians into Germany and Italy were finally checked by the victories of Henry the I. at Merseburg in 933, and of Otho the I. at Augsburg in 955. The Hungarians were then a barbarous people, addicted to superstition and magic, like the Finns; eating horse flesh at their religious feasts like the Scandinavians. The names of their divinities are now unknown.

Christianity began to be established about the year 973; the people imitated the example of their king Gheysa, whose son Stephen was baptized in 983, he ascended the throne in 1000, and was ranked after his death among the number of the saints. Twenty princes, descendants of St. Stephen, were successively kings of Hungary. One of them, perhaps the most illustrious, was Ladislaus the holy, who conquered Croatia, Slavonia and Dalmatia. Transylvania was civilized by numerous German colonies in the time of Gheysa the Second. Bela the Third made himself master of Galicia, Servia and the duchy of Chulm in Dalmatia. Andrew the Second passed a law in 1222, by which the Hungarians might take up arms against their kings if they infringed their just rights. The nation was compelled to renounce that privilege in 1688. Bulgaria became tributary to Hungary under the same dynasty, but

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in the last reigns of these princes Hungary was exposed to the invasions of the Mongols. The reigning house became extinct in 1301, and twelve kings of different families ruled afterwards over Hungary. Lewis the First, one of these monarchs, united to his dominions the whole kingdom of Dalmatia, which was more than once taken by the Venetians, he conquered Lodomiria or Red Russia, Servia, Bulgaria, Wallachia and Moldavia. The same sovereign was elected king of Poland, and the Hungarian monarchy under his reign was equal, if not greater in extent, than the present Austrian empire. His successors were unable to retain his dominions. Sigismond, defeated by the Turks at Nicopolis in 1396, ceded to Poland the provinces on the east of the Carpathians. Mathias Corvin, who occupies a distinguished place in Hungarian history, wrested Silesia and Moravia from the Bohemians. Lewis the Second, the Hungarian Justinian, lost the battle of Mohacz, and was slain by the Turks. The kingdom, afterwards invaded almost on every side by the Turks, became a field of battle in which Christian and Mussulman armies massacred each other during a century. To regain Transylvania, separated from Hungary after the death of Lewis the Second in 1526, was the pretext for these wars. Luther's reformation, adopted by some, and proscribed by others, was the cause of fresh commotions and civil broils. It was the object of a numerous party to raise John Zapolya, the *waiwode* of Transylvania to the Hungarian throne; and the war between him and Ferdinand of Austria, his rival, was terminated by a treaty, which guaranteed to Zapolya the possession of Transylvania and the greater part of Hungary. It had ever been the policy of the Turks to support the Transylvanian princes against the Austro-Hungarian kings. The illustrious men who figured in these troublous times and displayed all the great qualities and defects of their nation, were the two Bathorys, Bethlen Gabor, Stephen Botskai, the conqueror of Upper Hungary, Gabriel Bethlen, who for some time ruled over the whole kingdom, Rakotsky, the terror of the Austrians and Poles, and Tekeli, who

Its fall.

Civil wars.

achieved heroic exploits, and died an exile in Natolia. The slow and methodical policy of Austria triumphed in 1713, and the hereditary rights of its emperors have since that time been acknowledged. The attempts to reconquer Servia produced no lasting change; the Polish provinces, though claimed and retaken by the Hungarians, form a separate kingdom. BOOK CIII.

BOOK CIII.

Synoptical Table of the Political and Military divisions of Hungary, &c.

I. Kingdom of Hungary. *(Madjiar-Orszag.)*

A. Western or Lower Hungary.
1. Cis-Danubian circle on the east of the Danube.
2. Trans-Danubian circle on the west of the Danube.

B. Eastern or Upper Hungary.
3. Cis-Tibiscan circle on this side of the Theiss.
4. Trans-Tibiscan circle on the other side of the Theiss.

Counties. *Gespannschaft,* (Ger.) *Varmegye,* (Hung.) *Stolica,* (Slav.) *Comitatus,* (official Latin.)

1. CIS-DANUBIAN CIRCLE.

German Names.	*Hungarian Names.*	*Statistical details.*	
G. of *Arwe.*	V. of *Arva.*[x]	Free and Royal towns,	23
Baatsch.	*Bacs.*	Episcopal towns,	3
Barsch.	*Bars.*[y]	Burghs,	176
Hont.	*Hont.*	Villages and hamlets,	2,507
Liptau.	*Lipto.*	*Prædia,*	593
Neograd.	*Nograd.*	Houses,	267,941
Neutra.	*Nyitra.*	*Different inhabitants classed according to the towns, burghs, hamlets, &c.*	
Pesth.	*Pest.*		
Presburg.	*Posony.*	Slavonians,	1,840
		Hungarians,	655
Gran.	*Esztergom.*[z]	Germans,	136
Thurots.	*Turocz.*	Servians,	74
Trentschin.	*Trencsen.*	Rousniacs,	2
Sohl.	*Zolyom.*[a]	Wallachians,	2

2. TRANS-DANUBIAN CIRCLE.

G. of *Stuhlweissenburg.*	V. *Feyer.*[b]	Free and Royal towns,	8
		Episcopal towns,	0
Barania.	*Baranya.*	Burghs,	19
Eisenburg.	*Vas.*[c]	Villages and hamlets,	2,571

[x] Oráwska Stolica, (Slav.)

[y] *Tyekowska,* (Slav.) *Tyekow* is the Slavonic name for the ancient royal town of *O-Bars* or Old Bar.

[z] *Ostrihomska Stolica* (Slav.)

[a] *Zsolcenska Stolica,* (Slav.)

[b] Comitatus Albensis in Latin, from *Alba Regia,* the Latin name of the chief town.

[c] *Zelezna Stolica* (Slav.)

Synoptical Table, &c. continued. BOOK CIII.

TRANS-DANUBIAN CIRCLE.

German Names.	Hungarian.	Statistical Details.	
Komorn.	*Komarom.*[d]	*Prædia,*	1,059
Raab.	*Gyor.*	Houses,	205,353
Wieselburg.	*Mosony.*	*Inhabitants, &c.*	
Schumeg.	*Somogy.*	Hungarians,	1,744
Oedenburg.	*Soprony.*	Germans,	346
Szalad.	*Szala.*	Croatians,	313
Tolna.	*Tolna.*	Slavonians,	62
Veszprim.	*Veszprem.*	Servians,	26
		Vandals (Wendes)	160

3. CIS-TIBISCAN CIRCLE.

			Free and Royal towns,	6
			Episcopal towns,	2
G.	*Abaujvar.*	V. *Abauji.*	Burghs,	120
	Beregh.	*Beregh.*	Villages and hamlets,	2,285
	Borschod.	*Borsod.*	*Prædia,*	505
	Gœmær.	*Gœmær.*	Houses,	181,745
	Hevesch.	*Heves.*	*Inhabitants, &c.*	
	Scharosch.	*Saros.*	Slavonians,	1,106
	Unghvar.	*Unghvar.*	Hungarians,	917
	Zemplén.	*Zemplén.*	Rousniacs,	312
			Germans,	68
			Wallachians,	9
			Poles,[e]	1

4. TRANS-TIBISCAN CIRCLE.

			Free and Royal towns,	5
G.	*Arad.*	V. *Arad.*	Episcopal towns,	2
	Bekesch.	*Bekes.*	Burghs,	113
	Bihar.	*Bihar.*	Villages and hamlets,	1782
	Tschanad.	*Czanad.*	*Prædia,*	478
	Kraschow.	*Krasso.*	Houses,	302,360
	Marmarosch.	*Marmaros.*	*Inhabitants, &c.*	
	Saboltsch.	*Szabolcz.*	Wallachians,	1,061
	Sathmar.	*Szathmar.*	Hungarians,	564
	Temesch.	*Temes.*	Rousniacs,	125
	Toronthal.	*Torontal.*	Germans,	83
	Ugotsch.	*Ugocs.*	Servians,	56
			Slavonians,	10

[d] Comitatus Jaurinensis, from Jaurinum.

[e] In the small town of Pudlein.

BOOK CIII.

Synoptical Table, &c. continued.

II. United Kingdoms.

Croatia, (Hung.) *Horvath Orszag.*
Slavonia, (Hung.) *Toth Orszag.*
Dalmatia,
Galicia.
Lodomiria. } Claimed by the Hungarian diet.

COUNTIES OF CROATIA.

			Free and Royal towns,	4
			Burghs,	8
G.	*Kreutz.*	V. *Kœræs.*	Villages,	1,136
	Warasdin.	*Varasd.*	*Prædia,*	7
	Agram.	*Zagrab.*	Houses,	33,486
			Inhabitants, &c.	
			Croatians,	1,148

COUNTIES OF SLAVONIA.

			Royal towns,	2
			Burghs,	22
			Villages,	571
			Prædia,	28
G.	*Poschega.*	*Poczega.*	Houses,	35,189
	Syrmia.	*Szerem.*	*Inhabitants, &c.*	
	Verovitz.	*Veracze.*	Slavonians,	486
			Servians,	102
			Hungarians,	4
			Germans,	2
			Rousniacs,	1

III. Different Districts.

Under the palatine of the kingdom.
- *Jazygia,* (Ger.); *Jaszag,* (Hung.); 3 burghs 8 villages.
- *Great Cumania.* — *Nagy-Kunsag,* 1 burgh, 5 villages.
- *Little Cumania.* — *Kis-Kunsag,* 3 burghs, 5 villages.

Under the royal Lieutenancy.
- Privileged villages of the *Haydoucks,* 3 burghs.[f]
- *Trading coast,* 2 burghs.[g]
- Towns of *Zips,* 16 burghs.[h]

[f] *Oppida Haydonicalia.*
[g] We are not aware that the above division was restored in 1814.
[h] *Oppida Scepusiensia.*

Synoptical Table, &c. continued. BOOK CIII.

Under the Archbishop of Gran. { Seat (*Sedes*) of Vaika. { *Prædialists*, noble vassals of the Archbishop. ——— of Verebel.

Under a provincial Count. { District of Turopolia, 33 villages, 8 hamlets. [i]

B. MILITARY LIMITS.

1. Under the military government of Croatia.

Captainry of Carlstadt. { Regiment of Licania, 2 burghs, 105 villages. ——— Ottoschatz, 1 town, 1 burgh, 79 villages. ——— Ogulin, 1 burgh, 95 villages. ——— Szluin, 2 burghs, 315 villages.

Captainry of Varasdin. { Regiment of Kreutz, 1 burgh 191 villages. ——— St. George, 2 burghs, 71 villages.

2. Under the ban of Croatia.

{ Regiment 1st, 1 burgh, 140 villages. Regiment 2d, 4 burghs, 138 villages.

3. Under the military government of Slavonia.

{ Regiment of Gradisca, 1 town, 1 burgh, 131 villages. ——— Brod, 1 town, 1 burgh. ——— Petervaradin, 1 town, 3 burghs, 131 villages. District of the Tchaikistes, 13 villages.

Under the military government of the banat.

{ German Regiment, 1 burgh, 45 villages. Wallacho-Illyrian, 1 burgh, 111 villages.

IV. PRINCIPALITY OF TRANSYLVANIA.

I. *Hungarian Counties.* (*Magyarok-Resze.*)

GERMAN AND HUNGARIAN NAMES.

G. *Lower Weissenburg.* V. *Alsœ-Feyer, (Comitatus Albensis,* Latin.)[k]

Upper Weissenburg. *Felsœ-Feyer.*

Dobok. *Doboka.*

[i] We do not know that the privileges of the district were restored after 1814.

[k] I believe that the following are all the names by which the town of Weissenburgh or Karlsburg has been distinguished. *Alba-Julia, Alba-Carolina, Carolopolis, Karoly-Feyer-Var, Weissenburg* or the low town, *Harlsburg*, (the fortified town), *Belgrad.*

BOOK CIII.

Synoptical Table, &c. continued.

Hunyad.	*Hunyad.*
Klausenburg.	*Kolos, (Kluss* in Wallachian.)
Kraschna.	*Kraszna.*
Kokelburg.	*Kukullo.*
Szolnok, inland.	*Belsæ-Szolnok.*
——— central.	*Kœsep-Szolnok.*
Thorda.	*Thorda.*

DISTRICTS, (Videke.)

Fogarasch.	*Fogaras.*
Kœvar.	*Kœvar.*

II. *Country of the Szeklers. (Szekelyek-Resze.)* [l]

SEATS OR SZEKE.

Aranyosch.	*Aranyos.*
Tchik.	*Czik.*
Haromszek.	*Haromszek (Sedes Trisedinensis)* [m]
Maros.	*Maros.*
Udvarhely.	*Udvarhely.*

III. *Country of the Saxons. (Szaszok-Resze.)*

SEATS OR SZEKE. (JURISDICTIONS.)

Hermanstadt.	*Szelen (Comitatus Cibiniensis.)*
Mediasch.	*Medgyes.*
Reismarkt.	*Szerdahely (Sedes Mercurienses.)* [n]
Reps.	*Kœ-kalom (Sedes Rupenses.)*
Muhlenbach.	*Szasz-Sebes.*
Schassburg.	*Seges-Var.*
Gross-Schenk.	*Nagy-Sink.*
Broos.	*Szasz-Varos.*
Leschkirch.	*Ui-Egyhaz.*

DISTRICTS.

Bistritz.	*Beszterez or Nœsen.*
Kronstadt.	*Brasso.*

[l] *Pars Siculorum* (official Latin).

[m] *Harom* means three, and the seat or jurisdiction of Harom is formed by the junction of three others.

[n] The burgh of Szerdahely is called *Mercurium* in some ancient documents, dated about the year 1200.

ANOTHER DIVISION OF THE COUNTRY OF THE SAXONS. BOOK CIII.

Altland, (the old country),	Hermanstadt.[o]
	Reps.
	Gross-Schenk.
	Leschkirch.
Weinland, (wine country),	Schœssburgh.
	Mediasch.
Land vor dem Walde, (in front of the forests.)	Muhlenbach.
	Reismarkt.
	Broos.
Burzen Land, (land of tempests.)	Kronstadt.

IV. *Military Limits.*

1st Wallachian regiment.	In the south of Hunyad and Hermanstadt.
2d Wallachian regiment.	Kronstadt.
1st regiment of the Szeklers.	In the south of Czik.
2d regiment of the Szeklers.	Haromszek.
Regiment of Szekler hussars.	Different villages.

KINGDOM OF DALMATIA.

(*Claimed by the States General of Hungary.*)

DEPARTMENTS.

1. *Zara.*	Ancient county of *Zara* or *Kotar.*
	Bucovitza.
	Counties of *Sebenico, Knin,* &c.
2. *Spalato.*	Zavoria.
	Petrovopoglia.
3. *Makarska.*	*Radobiglia.*
	Roskopoglia.
4. *Ragusa.*	Ragusan territory.
5. *Cattaro.*	*Bocche* of Cattaro.

[o] The old country appears to have been the same as the *Fundus Regius Saxonicus,* or the Comitatus Cibiniensis in the Royal Diplomas.

Population.

1. Population of Hungary.

Census of 1820, according to Czaplowitz,	8,643,627
Increase in five years,	250,000
Amount in 1825,	8,893,627
Census, according to the *Vaterlandische Blatter*, in 1816,	8,200,000

Different Classes of Inhabitants, according to Hœberlin, in 1802.		According to Vaterland. Blatt. in 1811.
Nobility, (males,)	162,495	
Clergy,	13,728	
Servants of government,	4,396	12,066
Manufacturers, artisans, &c.	8,356	
Burgesses,	511,661(?)	88,422
Peasants,	584,326	643,215
Servants and workmen,	788,414	783,364

Division according to the Origin of the Inhabitants.

Magiars.	*Magiars* proper,	3,385,000
	Kumans,	73,000
	Jazyges,	42,000
	Sum,	3,500,000
Slavi.	*Slovacks*,	2,903,957
	Rousniacks,	358,913
	Szotaks,	52,000
	Poles,	2,200
	Vandals,	40,730
	Schokzes,[p]	160,000
	Croates,	328,000
	Servians,	165,000
	Bulgarians,	5,300
		4,019,100

[p] The Schokzes are Wallachians mixed with Slavonians.

Germans,	500,000
Wallachians,	550,000
Greeks,	500
Macedo-Wallachians, or *Zinzares,*	900
Armenians,	1,000
Jews,	550,000
Zigeuenes, (gypsies,)	30,000
Different inhabitants,	500

(*Czaplovicz,* Vaterland. Blatt. 1820, p. 409, &c.)

DIVISIONS ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT WORSHIPS OF THE INHABITANTS.

Catholics,	4,756,095
United Eastern Church,	635,300
Eastern Church,	1,097,800
Armenians,	1,000
Different Protestants,	1,285,816
Lutherans,	822,989
Jews,	150,000

(*Czapolvicz,* Vaterland. Blatt. p. 27.)

2. POPULATION OF TRANSYLVANIA.

Census of 1811, according to M. Benigni,	1,501,406
Annual increase, 15,000,	210,000
Census of 1825,	1,711,406

DIVISIONS. DIFFERENT NATIONS.

Magiars and *Szeklers,*	460,000
Saxons,	420,000
Wallachians,	800,000
Zigeunes, or *gypsies,*	70,000
Slavi, or *Slavonians,*	7,000
Armenians,	5,500
Italians,	1,800

DIVISIONS ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT SECTS, (*Hassel.*)

Catholics,	120,000
United Greek Church,	160,000

BOOK CIII.

Divisions according to the Different Sects, Continued.

Eastern Church,	916,500
Lutherans,	168,000
Other Protestants,	210,000
Unitarians, (Socinians,)	44,000

POPULATION OF THE MILITARY LIMITS.

Census in 1815,	940,568
Annual Increase, 3600,	
Present Population,	976,598
Men fit for the military service,	135,824

DIFFERENT INHABITANTS IN 1815.

Slavi,	728,173
Wallachians,	121,062
Magiars,	79,363
Germans,	9,000

(Heitzinger's Statistics of the military limits, 1817.)

	EXTENT.	POPULATION IN 1825.	
	Hungarian Square Miles.[q]	*Square Leagues.*[r]	*Supposed population.*
Hungary,	4,169		9,000,000
Transylvania,	865		1,700,000
Military Limits,	863		976,000
Dalmatia,	274		350,000
	6,171		12,026,000

[q] The Hungarian square mile is equal to sixteen English square miles.

[r] The square league varies from six one-fourth to nine English square miles.

BOOK CIV.

EUROPE.

European Russia. First Section. Southern Russia.

We pass from the countries on the south-east of Europe, to the immense plains which extend from the Carpathian to the Ural range, a distance of 500 leagues, and throughout the whole of it, no mountain interrupts the unvaried horizon, or opposes a barrier to the winds. This half of Europe forms only the European part of the Russian empire. It might be necessary to repeat what has been already stated in the introduction to this volume, and in the comparative tables of the seventeen sections, of which European Russia forms eight, were we to generalize the physical geography of so great an extent of country. All the *Scythian plains* form what is generally termed southern Russia, and in that region is also included a narrow frontier, connected with the basin of the lower Danube.

Rivers, the Dneister.

The Dneister issues from a lake on the base of the Carpathians, waters Gallicia or Austrian Poland, flows with impetuosity across rocks, and forms cataracts near Iampol, so that boats cannot ascend it. But as the river descends, its course becomes less violent, and it terminates in a large *liman* or lake united to the sea, which is now called the lake of *Ovidovo* or the *ewes*. On that account the Russians imagine that the places rendered illustrious by the exile of Ovid, are situated in their empire. The modern Turla is built on the site of the ancient Tyras,

BOOK CIV.

and the new Russian government of Bessarabia extends over the whole of that province, and the part of Moldavia on the east of the Pruth.

Russian Moldavia.

The numerous hills on the north of eastern Moldavia are overspread with oak, lime, and beech trees, and the fields are covered with maize, millet, vineyards and orchards. But as we descend the two rivers, the hills unite with the plains, wood is not so common, and the appearance of the country resembles that of Ottoman Moldavia. All the inhabitants are *Moldovenys* or Moldavians, they are governed by a Christian prince, are less barbarous than they once were, less slothful and less addicted to drunkenness; they are now beginning to cultivate that fertile land, which under the double tyranny of the Hospodars and the Mussulmans was neglected, or used exclusively for the rearing of cattle. The peasants were obliged to serve their lords and masters without wages; the evil still exists, but not in so great a degree, gratuitous labour is now much reduced, and the profession of the same religion is a bond of union between the Russians and Moldavians. The Wallachian or Daco-Roman dialect of the people is little different from the one spoken in Western Moldavia.[a]

Towns.

Khotim or, according to the Polish orthography, *Choczin* was formerly the most northern fortress in the Ottoman empire, of which it was considered a bulwark. The citadel was built according to the plan of French engineers, and the town was peopled at one time by 20,000 inhabitants, it does not contain at present a fourth part of that number. Kischenau is the residence of the ecclesiastical and civil authorities in the government, among its edifices are a well-built synagogue, and three large marble fountains. *Orhey* is situated near a lake, in the middle of which is a thickly wooded island, and *Soroka* lies at no great distance from excavations abounding in nitre; both are ill peopled, the townsmen are indolent and poor. The inhabitants of the forest of *Kigiesch* on the

[a] Observations sur la Moldavie Orientale, Ephém. Géogr. XXXIV. B. 133.

ancient confines of Bessarabia and Moldavia, call themselves *Kodrenes*, and speak the Moldavian.

Bessarabia. Physical geography.

Bessarabia forms physically the lower part of Moldavia. No trees, a few shrubs only, are observed near the rivers; the lakes or stagnant water are covered with reeds, and in the plains between the marshes, the ox, the buffalo and the bison wander among verdant pastures, where the herbage reaches to the height of their horns.[b] In the cultivated land, millet yields a hundred-fold, and barley sixty. The finest peaches in Europe grow in the country round *Babahda*, and *Ismael* is noted for its apricots. Such is the heat or drought of summer, that all the streams between the two great rivers are drained, and the inhabitants are then compelled to take their water from the fountains, which were dug by the Tartars, and guarded by the same people, with religious veneration. Continued rains set in during the autumn, and in that season, many rivers, marshes and lakes appear in different parts of the country. The horse and the sheep exist in a wild state; deer, chamois, hares and wolves abound in Bessarabia. The *limans* or gulfs at the mouths of rivers are stored with *sterlets*, *belougas*, large carps and various kinds of fish. Numerous flocks of cranes, storks and different aquatic birds, haunt the rivers and the gulfs. The country, in other respects, resembles Moldavia.

Towns.

Bender or Tighin (Moldavian) is an important fortress on the banks of the Dneister; it is peopled by 10,000 individuals, who, for the most part, are engaged in trade, and many of the lower orders are employed in tanning leather. *Kawschani* was once a Tartar and a commercial town, but its 20,000 inhabitants have disappeared since the Russian conquest. Charles the XII. and a few of his faithful soldiers defended themselves at *Warnitza* against a Turkish army. *Ak-Keirman* is ill fortified, its public buildings are large, and its fine harbour is formed by the liman of the Dneister; the population amounts to 10,000

[b] Busching, Erdbeschreibung, II. 795.

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or 14,000 inhabitants, who carry on a lucrative trade in salt.[c] *Kilia*, a town of some consequence on the embouchure of the Danube, is likely from its position to be at some future period, very flourishing. Ismael, a fortified place, was peopled in 1789 by 30,000 individuals, but all of them were destroyed on the day that Souwarof took the town by assault, and changed its mosques and bazar into a heap of ruins.

Great Roman wall.

The Romans were not indifferent about the possession of these regions, they are said to have built an immense wall, the remains of which extend from Kischenau to Taurida, but the present inhabitants are of opinion that it was the work of engineers, and served to protect the maritime towns against the incursions of wandering and pastoral tribes.

Different nations that have inhabited the country.

Bessarabia was peopled in ancient times by Scythians, Sarmatians, Getæ, and Bastarnians; and it became, after the death of Attila, a place of refuge for the dispersed Huns; but Hungarians and Bulgarians, who served probably in the armies of Attila, entered the country so early as 469, and by them the Huns proper were driven beyond the Danube. It was in the year 635, that a prince of the Hungarians and Bulgarians freed his nation from the yoke of the Awares, and conquered several Slavonic tribes, among others the *Tiverzi* or *Twerzi*, and the *Lutitsches*, that were settled between the Dneister and the Dneiper. The Bulgarians retained their lands until the year 882, when the Magiars invaded their country, and founded an ephemeral empire. The conquerors were subdued in their turn by the Petchenegues and the Comans. The last people, though vanquished by the Mongols in 1241, settled in these regions under princes of their own race.

[c] The town is built on the site of the ancient *Tyras* of Ptolemy and Ammianus Marcellinus; it corresponds with the *Aspron* of Constantine Porphyrogenetes (the town built with white stones.) Its Slavonic name is *Bialogrod*, its Wallachian and Moldavian, *Tchitate Alba*. We do not know on what authority it has been called a Roman colony or *Alba-Julia*. The Turkish syllable *ak* means white.

They took from Bessarab, one of their rulers, the name of *Bessarabeni* or Bessarabians, and their new designation appeared for the first time in a public act of 1259, which was quoted by the anonymous archdeacon of Gnesne, who wrote his chronicle about the year 1395.[d] *Oldamur*, one of their kings, planned the invasion of Hungary in 1282, his subjects then inhabited Moldavia, and the Hungarian frontiers were exposed to their incursions. *Bali-Khan*, another prince who resided in *Karabuna*, sent an army to the assistance of Anne of Savoy, a Byzantine empress. Almost all the inhabitants had, in the early part of the fourteenth century, embraced Christianity, and, although surrounded on all sides by Greek Christians, some Franciscan monks, whom the pope sent into the country, accomplished the end of their mission, and the nation remained faithful to the western church.[e] Their adherence to that form of faith may have contributed to the decline of their power. It is certain that about the end of the fourteenth century, the Wallachians and Moldavians possessed nearly the whole of Bessarabia. The same country was tributary to Hungary under queen *Hedwige*, and Uladislaus transferred it in 1393 to *Wlad*, a prince of Wallachia. The fief passed to his son Mirza, and Alexander of Moldavia conquered it in 1412. The states of Alexander were divided by the Hungarians and the Poles, his children retained Bessarabia. *Dracul*, a warlike prince of Wallachia, ruled over the province from 1469 to 1474, and was then obliged to give it up to the victorious Mahomet the Second. The Moldavians took it under Stephen the Great, but two years afterwards the crescent was hoisted on the turrets of Kilia and Akerman. A colony of 30,000 Nogay-Tartar families migrated from the banks of the Wolga and the kingdom of Astrakhan to Bessarabia, then depopulated by so many changes and destructive wars. These settlers

[d] Sommersberg, Scriptores rerum Silesiac. I. 82. II. 73, 92.

[e] Gebhardi, Weltgeschichte, XV. Part IV. p. 299, p. 512.

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were called *Budziaks.* Though accustomed to a pastoral life, many of them became husbandmen, and by the industry of its new inhabitants, the country continued to flourish until the Russians destroyed the feeble monarchy of the Khans in the Crimea. Some of the Budziaks, having put themselves under the protection of Russia, emigrated to the banks of the Kuban, the rest fled to the south of the Danube in 1812, when Bessarabia was added, by the treaty of Bucharest, to the dominions of the Czar. The number at present in the province is reduced to 80,000. It is said that an Hungarian priest, who visited the country in 1706, had the satisfaction of seeing many that remained faithful to the Catholic church.[f] The Polish and Russian colonists, who settled lately on the banks of the Kogoulnick, complain of the cold and severe winters.

System of M. de Sestrenzevitch.

Many treatises have been written on the origin and even on the name of the Bessarabians. It has been clearly proved that the ancient Besses or Biesses, (a people whom we have included among the Proto-Slavonians,) inhabited the countries near the mouths of the Danube, from the first to the fourth century. An historian informs us, that in the year 376, the same people were the neighbours of the Antes or eastern Slavonians.[g] It is not unlikely that they were the same as the Biesses, whom Ptolemy places in Sarmatia, and on the upper banks of the Dneiper; perhaps their name was applied to two distinct people of Slavonic origin; at all events, the *Biessenes* inhabited in the eighth century, *Biessenia*, a country near the mouths of the Danube. It has been supposed that these people were branches of the Patzinacitæ, but it may be maintained with equal probability, that they were the descendants of the ancient Besses. One writer

f Busching. Hist. Géog. Magazin, III. p. 560. Sulzer, Transalp. Dacien, II. 83.

g Jornandes, C. V. C. XLVIII. Stritter, Memoriæ, t. I. p. 161. Some of them were baptized about the year 390.

affirms that *Muamed*, the *khakan* of the Arabians, made an irruption into the Roman provinces, about the end of the seventh century, and that his Arabs mingled with the Besses. The assertion requires to be confirmed by additional evidence; and the examination of the arguments relative to the continuance of the Besses might lead us into an inquiry incompatible with the limits of this work. BOOK CIV.

The Dneiper or the Borysthenes waters three Russian governments, Iekaterinoslav, Kherson and Taurida, which made up formerly Little Tartary. The physical gographer observes two regions in that country, the continental plain, and the peninsula of Taurida or the Crimea. The first is bounded on the north by the last hills in the central ridge of Russia. The elevation of the terrace that extends from the neighbourhood of Moscow, Kalouga and Toula towards the Black Sea, is about fifteen or sixteen hundred feet. The Dnieper winds through these heights amidst rocks of granite, and forms many cataracts and whirlpools, but all of them disappear during the heavy rains in the spring, and the inhabitants can then ascend the river in their canoes. The same river rises from a marsh at the base of the ridge of Waldai, receives from the right, the Beresina and the Pripetz, from the left, the Sosna, the Desna, the Psiol and many other streams. It waters a large and fertile country, and communicates by means of canals with the basins of the Duna and the Niemen. Its numerous falls, the shallowness of its feeders, the masses of ice with which it is covered above Kiew, from the first of November to the first of April, and in other places from the middle of December to the beginning of March, but above all, the want of intelligence and industry in the people, diminish its commercial importance. The water of the Dneiper, like that of its feeders, passes through beds of chalk, and marshes, and is not very fresh or limpid, still the sturgeon, the carp, the shad, the pike and a variety of fish abound in its turbid streams. Serpents swarm in all the islands that are not inundated by the swelling of the river, but Kortitzkaia has been partly The Dneiper.

Islands on the Dneiper.

BOOK CIV. cultivated by the laborious efforts of a colony of Mennonites. The Cossakki-sa-Parovi established their military settlements on the islands between the falls *(prorogues)* and the confluence of the Bazoulouk, they fixed near the last place, their *setcha* or principal camp. The ancient names of the cataracts on the Dneiper are preserved in the writings of the Byzantines, and as they are of Gothic derivation, it is probable that the Ostrogoths, the warlike adventurers that issued from Scandinavia, conquered these countries in the course of their invasions.

Towns on the river.

The present towns on the river are *Iekaterinoslav* and *Kherson*, they are the capitals of two large governments, and the last contains a population of 100,000 souls. The greater part of the fleet on the Black Sea has been built in its dock yards, where seven ships of war may be constructed at one time. *Oczacof* or *Otchakof* was formerly an important Turkish fortress, it is now a station for merchant vessels, and the fortress of *Kinburn*, which is opposite to it, is in a political point of view, equally insignificant. Odessa is the most flourishing town in that part of the Russian empire; its growing prosperity may be attributed to many fortunate but contingent events, and to the able protection of the Duke of Richelieu. It is at present peopled by 40,000 souls, and from it are exported all the corn, hides, wood and wax of the Ukraine, and all the merchandise that is borne down the Dniester and the Bog; its imports are the wines and fruits of the Mediterranean, the leather, silk and productions of the Levant. The value of its exports in 1816, amounted to 49,364,704 rubles, and that of the corn only was supposed to be worth 14 millions.[h] It cannot, on the other hand, be denied that its trade must be uncertain, so long as the Ottoman power is established on the Bosphorus.

Ielisawetgrad, (*Elisabethgrad*) a town in the interior, is built on a fertile plain watered by the Ingul, and its population is not less than 12,000 individuals, who, for the

[h] Nouv. Ephem. Géogr. VI. p. 228.

most part profess the Greco-Russian religion, and many are of Servian origin. The new city of *Nikolaief* is situated at the confluence of the Ingul and the Bog; it is the seat of an admiralty, it is peopled by 9000 inhabitants, and, although adorned with fine edifices, it is ill provided with wood and materials for building. The neighbourhood of Ilinskaia on the liman of the Bog, is covered with the ruins of Olbai, an ancient Milesian colony.

Physical geography.

The country between the Dniester and the Dnieper may be divided into two distinct regions. The hills in the northern are partly covered with lofty forests of oaks, limes and poplars. The southern plains, though well adapted for corn, and not encumbered with trees, are almost wholly neglected; numerous flocks and herds feed on them, but the pastures are sometimes scorched by arid and burning winds. The soil, when it is first broken by the plough, appears to be impregnated with nitre, a substance deleterious to vegetation, yet as soon as it is removed or diminished, Albanian wheat, millet and the arbute melon may be cultivated with great success. The farinacious fruit of the *cratægus aria* is made into bread, and used by the poor. The Greek poplar grows on the banks of rivers, and the gardens in the neighbourhood of the towns yield almost every sort of fruit; thus there are seven kinds of grapes, but the wine is weak and acid.

The animals indigenous to the country are the *myoxus*, the *mus-citillus*, the *arctomys* or Russian marmot, the *mustela sarmatica* and the *saiga*. The heaths, the brushwood and the steppes abound in partridges, quails and woodcocks; and whenever the grasshoppers are not devoured by sea swallows, the whole or the greater part of the harvest is consumed by these destructive insects. The cold of winter is intense, and the streams are dried by the summer's heat.[i]

[i] Meyer, Opisanie Otchakowcki Semlii, 1794. Bœber's Account of Iekaterinoslav. See the Transactions of the Economical Society of St. Petersburgh. Pallas's Travels.

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Country between the Dnieper and the sea of Azof.

The above remarks are strictly applicable to the country between the Dnieper and the sea of Azof. The well-wooded hills form a narrow frontier, the steppes are more extensive, the soil is comparatively barren, and the husbandmen live at greater distances from one another. Brackish lakes and marshes, heaths and sandy downs are thickly scattered through the plains.[k]

Towns.

All the towns, with the exception of *Bachmuth*, which is famous for its horses, are situated on the sea of Azof. *Taganrok*, the most important of any, is built on a promontory, its harbour may contain from thirteen to fourteen hundred small vessels; the furs of eastern Russia are sent from it into different countries, and the other exports are the same as those of Odessa. Peter the Great wished to make it one of his capitals, and the place is memorable from the death of Alexander the First, who visited it in his journey through the provinces, and was there seized with the fever of the Crimea.

Nachitchevan, a town of 13,000 or 14,000 souls, is peopled by an Armenian colony. It is situated in a district attached to the government of Iekaterinoslav, and surrounded by the territory of the Cossacks. The trade consists chiefly in silk and cotton, the neighbouring country is thickly planted with mulberry trees, and the houses are built in the eastern style. *Azof* was once included among the cities of Asia, its fortifications have fallen into decay, but its gardens and fruit trees are now more numerous than ever.

New Russian colony.

All that extent of land together with Taurida, is sometimes called *New Russia;* it may be considered an acquisition wrested from nature by the efforts and industry of the Tartars. The greater part of the inhabitants are at present composed of Russian husbandmen; but the imperial government invited colonists from every nation, and the great population of Little Russia is nowhere more abundant than on the banks of the Dnieper. Servians,

[k] Junker's Account of the Country between the Dnieper and the Don. Muller's Historical Memoirs of the Russian empire, volume IX.

Wallachians, and Albanians have inhabited, since 1754, the district between the Dnieper and the Ingul, which has been long known by the name of *New Servia*. The colonists are now confounded with the Russians. Some Poles sought refuge in the neighbourhood of Odessa, after the annihilation of their country, and the Greeks have increased on the banks of the Berda. Few settlers have migrated to the Steppes of Nogay. Ten villages to the south-east of these districts are peopled by *Duchoborzes* or Russian quakers, and 30,000 Nogay Tartars burnt their travelling waggons near these European settlements, and fixed their abode in seventy-three villages.[1]

Duchoborzes.

The colonists are in many places ill provided with timber for building, they live under the ground, and the hillocks, which are so common in the country, and which served in ancient times for graves or monuments of the dead, are now converted into houses, the vaults are changed into roofs, and beneath them are subterranean excavations. *Kurgan* is the Tartar name for these *tumuli*, they are scattered throughout New Russia, they were raised at different times by the different people who ruled over that region. The Kurgans are not all of the same kind; some are not unlike the rude works of the early Hungarians, others are formed of large and thin stones, like the Scandinavian tombs. It is to be regretted that the different articles contained in them have been only of late years examined with care. Many inscriptions, long concealed in ruins, prove the existence of Greek colonies from the banks of the Danube to the Borysthenes. Other and more frequent traces of the same people still remain on the coasts of Taurida.

Kurgans.

A gulf on the Black Sea, and another on the Sea of Azof, are divided by a narrow isthmus, and limit on the north the peninsula of Taurida, or the Crimea. The eastern part is washed by the Sea of Azof, and separated from Asia by the strait of Yenikali, or the Cimmerian Bosphorus, and the

The Crimea or Taurida.

[1] Nouvelles Annales des Voyages, t. I. p. 249.

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southern and western coasts border on the Black Sea. The part to the north of the river Salghir is an immense plain, of which the western extremity is barren and covered with sand, and the northern or the country near the isthmus of Perecop abounds in salt and salt marshes, but the part on the south is arable and fertile. When the wind is easterly, the *Siwash* or eastern gulf, and the Putrid Sea or *Gniloï More* receive by a narrow opening the waters of the Sea of Azof, but at other times the ooze, the filth and mud that cover the beds of these marshes may be seen to the distance of ten versts.[m] The noxious exhalations that rise from them, render the country unhealthy beyond Perecop. Salt, sheep, and Albanian wheat are the riches of the plains. But the air is mixed with unwholesome vapours, and the husbandmen that settle in the country, are subject on their arrival to dangerous diseases. The southern region is very different, a mountainous range of no great extent rises in front of the Black Sea. The maritime or highest part is formed by strata of calcareous rocks and madrepores, the inland chain is also composed of limestone mixed with shells, and their horizontal beds descend beneath the plains. The highest summit is situated in the neighbourhood of Symferopol and Baktchisarai; it has been distinguished by the Russian name of *Tchetyr-Dag*, because its shape is not unlike a tent. The traveller takes three hours to ascend it, but he is rewarded for his toil by the view from the top; he can see the whole of that fine peninsula, which was at one time covered with flourishing cities under the dominion of the Tartars. Perecop is distinctly seen on the north, the Black Sea extends to the south and the west, and the distant prospect is bounded on the east by the sea of Azof.[n] The caverns in these rocks

Putrid Sea.

Mountains.

[m] The verst, a Russian measure of length, is equal to 3520 English feet, consequently three versts are equal to two English miles.

[n] The height of the summit is 1200 feet according to Pallas, and 6600 according to Sumarakof.

are filled with snow, from them the Salghir takes its rise, and a thousand rivulets wind in every direction. The streams form a great number of cascades before they reach the base of the mountain, the water is intensely cold, and so transparent that a small stone or a piece of silver may be easily observed at the depth of seventy fathoms. The caverns are situated in many parts of the calcareous hills, those of *Bobatag* served as an asylum for the ancient inhabitants.[o] The mildest and most fruitful region in all the Russian empire is that continuation of vallies arranged in natural amphitheatres at the southern base of Taurida, along the coasts of the Black Sea. The climate is little different from that of Anatolia and Asia Minor; winter is hardly felt, the primrose and the crocus appear above the ground in the month of January, and the oak retains its green foliage throughout the year. "No part of Taurida, perhaps of the whole empire, affords the botanist a greater variety of plants, or the husbandman richer harvests. The ever-verdant laurel grows beside the olive, the pomegranate, the fig or the date tree, which might have been brought to the country in ancient times by Greek colonists. The mammiferous ash, the mastich, the sumach, the bladder-nut, the sage-leaved cistus, the emerus and the arbute of Asia Minor flourish in the open air. The walnut and almost every kind of fruit tree thrive in the woods or rather the natural gardens in the vallies. The caper bush is scattered along the coast, the wild vine reaches to the tops of the highest trees, descends again to the ground, and forms with the viburnum festoons and garlands. High hills, masses of rocks, streams and cataracts, verdant fields and woods, and the sea that bounds the horizon, render the landscape equal to any imagined or described by poets. The simple life of the good Tartars, their cottages cut in the solid rock, and concealed by the thick foliage of surrounding gardens,

Southern vallies.

[o] Pallas, Tableau Physique de la Tauride.

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the flute of the shepherd, his flocks scattered on solitary hills, remind the stranger of the golden age. The traveller leaves the people with regret, and envies the destiny of mortals ignorant of war, the frauds of trade, and luxury accompanied with all its vices."

These are the words of the learned Pallas, who left the court of Petersburg to spend the remainder of his days in the Crimea.

Agriculture.

The valuable plants of southern Europe and Asia Minor, might be cultivated in Taurida, and thus contribute to the wealth of Russia. "The most delicate fruits," continues M. Pallas, "arrive at maturity, many exist already in the province, olives and fig trees need not be exported from other regions, there is no scarcity of sesamum, a plant rich in oil, and the orange, the lemon and the citron, if a little labour be bestowed on them, resist the cold of winter. The grape might be much improved, if a judicious selection of the best vines were made in other countries, and if they were cultivated on different soils, the effect of which on the quality of the fruit had been previously ascertained. It might be necessary too to pay greater attention to the vintage, to the making of the new wine, and the preserving of the old. Druggists might obtain from the same country, many valuable simples and plants useful in dying, such as those generally exported from the islands in the Archipelago, Greece, Asia-Minor and Persia. Some of these plants are already found in a wild state, as the mammiferous ash and the sun-flower, that yields a rich blue dye. The same country is well adapted for the growth of different-coloured and hard timber, or for the wood employed in marquetry, for the cypress, the cork and the oaks from which gall-nuts and kermes are obtained, and the acorns used in dressing Morocco leather."

Obstacles by which cultivation is retarded.

The advantages which M. Pallas enumerated to his sovereign, are not likely to be soon realized. It is not denied that the germs of a future vegetation exist in the royal gardens at Nikita and other places, but the judicious labours of M. Steven are feebly seconded by

the industry of the inhabitants. The Tartar gardeners confine themselves to the cultivation of melons, arbutes, and ordinary vegetables. Apple, pear and cherry trees grow on the mountains; the peach, the fig, and the pomegranate thrive on the southern coast, but the olive is neglected, and the plantation of mulberry trees in the neighbourhood of Staroi-Krim is the only one in the country. The fourteen different kinds of grapes in Taurida are mostly consumed on the tables of the rich, and the quantity of wine produced is comparatively insignificant. The vineyards of Sudak form an exception; more than 30,000 eimers of wine are every year obtained from them. The Russian nobles for some time past have purchased land on that coast; its cultivation is thus improved, and the new proprietors expect ere long to raise *Burgundy* and *Champaigne* on their own estates, and to eat oranges from their own groves. But the nature of the climate, the vernal frosts, and the excessive heat of summer, if not insuperable obstacles, can only be surmounted by a civilized and industrious population.

Towns and remarkable places.

Perecop, a fortified place, consisting only of three houses, is not calculated to give the stranger a favourable opinion of the Crimean towns. The suburbs is three versts or two English miles distant; although peopled by a thousand individuals, who carry on a trade in salt, it is very ill built. The places to which the name of towns is least inapplicable, are situated on the district watered by the Salghir. That part of the country on which *Akmetchet* or the capital stands, is not fruitful, it is ill provided with water, and the inhabitants are exposed to endemical fevers. The town has been called *Sympheropol* by the Russians, since they became masters of the peninsula, but it is only known in the country by the name which it received from the Tartars. The population is not less than 20,000 souls, the inhabitants are indolent, and the place is without commerce.[q] The distance from Akmetchet to *Baktchi-Sarai*,

[q] Wsevoloiski's Dictionary, article Sympheropol.

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is not more than 30 versts, or twenty English miles. It was once the residence of the Khan, and the Tartar capital of the Crimea. It is built on the craggy side of a large natural moat between two mountains, and surrounded with fountains, streams, terraces, hanging vineyards and groves of black poplars near rocks and precipices. The vast palace of the Khans still remains, but many other edifices have been destroyed by the victorious Russians.[r] The number of inhabitants is now reduced to seven or eight thousand; their principal trade consists in cutlery and morocco leather. *Tchufut-Kali*,[s] an ancient fortress erected by the Genoese on a lofty precipice, is not more than five versts from the last town. It is now a place of refuge for 1200 Jews, of the sect Karai. The character of the Karaites is very different from that of their brethren in other countries; they live without reproach, their honesty is proverbial in the Crimea, and the word of a Karaite is said to be as good as another man's bond. They still adhere to the law of Moses, they have rejected the Talmud, every Rabbinical doctrine, and all interpolations of scriptural texts.[t] *Koslow*, which was for a short time distinguished by the name of Eupatoria, is situated on the western coast; its port is the most commercial of any in the peninsula, its population amounts to 12,000 inhabitants, many of whom are brewers of *bouza*, the Mussulman ale, that is drunk on the banks of the Sennaar. *Akhtiar* or *Sevastopol*, a large naval arsenal, and a temporary station of the Russian fleet, from which it can sail in twenty-four hours to the Bosphorus, is built on the southern extremity of the same coast. We observe after having doubled the capes of the Chersonesus and St. George, the narrow entrance of the port *Balaklava*, where two thousand Greeks gain a subsistence by trade and the

[r] Clarke's Travels, vol. I. p. 464.

[s] Tchufut was originally a name of reproach bestowed on the Jews, Kalé signifies a fort.

[t] Clarke, vol. I. p. 482.

produce of their mackarel fisheries. All the rocky and steep coast from Cape *Aia* to Cape *Aitodoro*, is in our opinion, the *front of the ram*, or the *Criou-Metopon* of the ancients. Travellers remark at the base of the mountains or the Byzantine *Klimata*, the romantic towns of *Nikita*, *Aloutchti*, *Soudak* and its small harbour, and *Ioursof* with a castle belonging to the governors of Taurida. Caffa or the ancient Theodosia is situated at the extremity of the mountains on the bay of Caffa. It covers the southern side of the gulf, and rises like a vast theatre of mosques and minarets near all the hills which enclose that part of the bay. It merited and obtained in past times the appellation of the Lesser Constantinople, it contained 36,000 houses within its walls, and not fewer than 8000 in the suburbs. It must be confessed, however, that the ruins do not indicate a space proportionate to so great a number. Mahomet II. having made himself master of the Bosphorus, took the town in 1475. It continued to flourish under the Tartars, but its inhabitants, like those throughout the Crimea, abandoned their possessions at the approach of the Russians, and the Genoese and Tartar monuments were destroyed by the barbarous troops of the czar.[u] The present population is less than 4000. *Kertsh*, once the residence of Mithridates, and the capital of the Bosphorian kings, and *Yenicale*, a small fortress that commands the strait, are situated on the eastern peninsula; near the former is the tomb of Mithridates, and a magnificent sarcophagus at Yenicale is now changed into a reservoir. The Altyn Obo, or highest hill in that part of the Crimea, is about four versts distant from Kertsh; it contains, according to tradition, a treasure guarded by a virgin, who spends her nights in lamentations. It was from the ancient citadel of the Bosphorians on the precipice above the sea, that Mithridates threw his son Xiphanes into the waves; at

[u] Clarke's Travels, chapters 18 and 19.

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least there is no other spot connected with the site of Panticapœum,[x] which from its eminence corresponds with the text of Appian, who says that the mother stood on the other side of the strait, and witnessed the murder of her son.[y]

We shall not enter into any inquiry concerning the Scythians, Tauro-Scythians, Cimmerians or the other ancient inhabitants of the Crimea. The Tartars (many of whom have now left their country) are sprung from the Turks, Græco-Scythians, and Nogays of the great horde, the founders of the khanat of Kaptschak. They are divided into many distinct classes, but there are no slaves or servile tribes amongst them. The estates of the lords are cultivated by farmers or hired labourers, whose condition is by no means wretched, and the nobles are the only individuals in the community that can possess land. Each village is still governed by its *Mursa* or elective chief, who enforces the laws, and is at the head of the rural authorities. The dwellings of the Tartars exhibit the rudeness and simplicity of early ages. Stakes or branches of trees are placed without regularity above one another, the chinks or interstices are covered with moss, and the spaces thus enclosed form the habitations of the peasants. The houses of the nobles are equally superficial, and consist only of a single story. The outer ornaments are light wooden pillars, painted in green, red or yellow; the rooms are not provided with chairs or tables, but a number of large pillows, placed round each apartment, serve the double purpose of seats and beds. A large space is left behind the wainscot, and all the necessary articles of household furniture are kept in it.

Character, manners.

The Tartars, like all the neighbouring subjects of the empire, hate their masters, their customs and institutions. The Russians have done little to allay such prejudices, they have done much to increase them. If aversion to

[x] The Modern Kertchy.

[y] Clarke, chapter 18.

despotic rulers be considered a heinous offence in the conquered, it must be admitted that they have many redeeming virtues; for every traveller that has visited the Crimea, speaks in high terms of their strict honesty and integrity. The same people are generous and hospitable, a patriarchal simplicity prevails among them, and houses set apart for the reception of strangers are attached to the dwellings of the wealthy. Travellers make mention of a convent of Tartar nuns at Batchisarai; their dress too is said not to be very different from that worn by the white penitents during their religious processions.

Husbandmen.

The improvement in the culture of the vine and the mulberry has not been greatly advanced by the Greek or German husbandmen, and their assistance has not been of much value in the different manufactures. The Slavonic husbandmen are a thriving colony, they are now accustomed to the climate, their number is rapidly increasing, but they are ignorant and ill educated.

History of the Cossacks.

It may be as well to take a short survey of the history of the Cossacks on the Don and the Black Sea, before we attempt to describe their country. Although the territory belonging exclusively to that people is equal in extent to 4600 square miles[z] or 12,800 square leagues, it contains few towns, and is ill calculated to excite the attention of the geographer. Little Russia is the native country of the Cossacks. The Slavonians of Kiow formed a distinct colony from those of Novgorod; the nature of their government was not the same, their destiny has been widely different. Separated from each other for more than three centuries, they have been at last united; but their language, manners and even physical constitution are so many marks of a distinct people. The Malo-Russians or inhabitants of Little Russia are at present settled in the Ukraine or in the governments of Kiow, Tchernigow, Novgorod-Severski, Kursk, Orel and Tambof.

[z] Fifteen of these miles are equal to a degree.

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Origin of the name.

All the military peasants in these provinces are denominated Cossacks, but in the last age the same name was generally applied to a number of warlike freebooters, who lived under a separate government. The word is of Tartar origin, and signifies an armed man; it was adopted by the Russians at the time when they began to reside in the places which the Tartars inhabited, or when the conquerors mixed with the few of the vanquished that remained, and became habituated to the same sort of life. Constantine Porphyrogenetes mentions *Kasachia*, a country at the base of Mount Caucasus, between the Black and the Caspian sea. According to the Russian annals, Mitislaf, prince of *Tmoutarakan*, and son of the great Vladimir, gained a signal victory in 1201 over the Kosaki, a people that appear to be the same as the one mentioned by the Greek emperor. They were of Tartar origin, and their name was perhaps derived from their mode of fighting, in the same manner as the *Kirguises-Kaisaks* have been so called from their light armour. Frequent mention is made of the Tartar-Cossacks in Russian history, particularly during the reign of Ivan the First. The *Cossacks-Ordinski* were distinguished much about the same time from the *Cossacks* of *Azof;* the former belonged to the great *Orda* or horde, the principal settlement of the Tartars on the Wolga. These two branches are the last remains of the Tartar empire in Russia. The people were destroyed by the conquerors, many of them fled on their arrival, and joined other Tartar tribes.

Cossacks of Little Russia.

The Cossacks of Little Russia are not mentioned before the year 1320, when Gedemin, great duke of Lithuania conquered Kiow. The origin of their military republic has been ascribed to the terror excited by the victories of that prince. Swarms of fugitives left their country, assembled at the embouchure of the Dnieper, and formed a petty state. They were compelled, in order to resist the aggressions of their neighbours, to live under a military government, and to submit to military laws. Their number was considerably augmented after Kiow was a second time laid waste by the Tartars in 1415, and they in-

creased still more rapidly when that large principality was united to Lithuania and Poland. The new colony was called Little Russia, and thus distinguished from the great empire. The inhabitants extended gradually to the banks of the Dniester and the Bog, and occupied all the country between these rivers and the Dnieper. The Cossacks built towns and burghs in which they resided with their families during winter, but in summer as many as were able to bear arms wandered in the steppes, or, like the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, waged continual war against the Tartars and Turks. Poland was thus protected against its most formidable enemies, and the Poles, far from checking the power of the rising republic, did all they could to promote it. King Sigismond ceded for ever to the Cossacks in 1750, the countries above the cataracts of the Dnieper. Stephen Bathory improved their military government, appointed their hetman or chief, and granted them an extensive territory, but his successors did not act with the same policy. The Cossacks were prohibited from continuing their incursions against the Turks, and it was not imagined that their warlike institutions were thus effectually destroyed. Poles settled in their country, and to them the highest offices in the state were committed. Their clergy too were compelled to renounce the spiritual authority of the patriarch, and to acknowledge the supremacy of the pope. The Cossacks, after an obstinate war, shook off the yoke, and submitted to the czars. That event happened in 1654, about three centuries and a half after the first separation of the Cossacks of the great horde from the Russian nation.

Cossacks of the Russian Ukraine.

Many of the Cossacks left the eastern banks of the Dnieper, and migrated to the southern provinces of Russia during their wars with the Poles. They settled in a fertile region, and retained a stratocracy in their new possessions. Such is the origin of the *Slobades* or the Cossacks in the Russian Ukraine. Their country had been formerly attached to the great duchy of Kiow, but it had remained uncultivated and desert since the first invasion of the Tartars.

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Zaparogues.

The branch of the *Zaporogues*, which is much more ancient, is perhaps the most remarkable of any. It was determined, in order to defend the Cossacks in the Ukraine from the invasions of the Tartars, that a number of young unmarried men should occupy the southern frontiers where the Don discharges itself into the Black Sea. Warlike youths flocked from every direction to that station, which soon became a military school, and so great was the attachment of the Cossacks to their new country that they refused to leave it, although exposed on every side to hostile incursions. The colonists were from time to time increased by the arrival of their countrymen who fled from the oppression of the Poles.

It was about the commencement of the seventeenth century that they separated wholly from the Cossacks of Little Russia, whose hetman they had until that time obeyed. They then formed a distinct military state, and elected a chief, the *kochevoi-ataman* or commander of the camp. Their setcha or principal station was a fortified camp, and although its position was often changed, it remained always near the cataracts of the Dnieper, the place from which they derived their name.

Government.

The nature of their military government is not unworthy of notice. War was the sole object of their union, they neglected agriculture and the rearing of cattle; fishing and the chase were their amusements, not sources of emolument, or the means of gaining a subsistence. All the members of the society were obliged to remain in a state of celibacy, and although they generally carried off the wives of their neighbours, it was unlawful to bring a woman within the limits of the setcha. To prevent their population from being impaired, they captured and took away many boys in the course of their expeditions, and their numbers were increased by the accession of criminals or outlaws from every kingdom, and almost all the European languages were spoken in their tents.

The ataman was chosen every year, and no dignity or mark of distinction was conferred on him after the expira-

tion of his office. Every member in the community was eligible to the highest place in the republic. They had no written laws, custom superseded their necessity, and little inconvenience arose from the want of them in the administration of justice. Criminals were judged with impartiality, and punished with extraordinary severity. The murderer was buried alive in the same grave with him whom he had destroyed. Robbers were confined three days in the stocks, and condemned to suffer so many stripes that most of them perished under the lash. These Cossacks had all the virtues and vices of freebooters. They were brave, barbarous and hospitable, sober and active in their military expeditions, indolent and drunken in their houses or tents. The number of those fit to bear arms amounted sometimes to forty thousand.

Their state, though not subdued, recognised at different times the authority of the Poles, the Tartars, the Porte and Russia. Peter the Great demolished their seteha when they joined the revolt of Mazeppa, the hetman of the Cossacks in the Ukraine. They lived afterwards under the protection of the Crimean khans, and were admitted in 1737 among the number of the Russian vassals. All the service they had to perform to the czar was to appear in campaigns when they were required, and on these occasions they were treated and paid like the other Cossacks. They were guilty of rebellion in the war against the Turks, which terminated in 1774; it was then they declared themselves independent, and when colonies were established in the conquered countries on the banks of the Dnieper,[a] the Cossacks maintained that the territory was their own, harassed the settlers, and by force or stratagem took fifty thousand captives. The empress resolved to punish the rebels and to annihilate a state which, under more favourable auspices, might have become a second Lacedemon. A Russian army surrounded their camp and disarmed them in 1775. A manifesto was published, and they were per-

[a] These countries were at that time called New Servia.

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mitted to leave the empire, or abandon their military institutions. A few betook themselves to agriculture, the rest repaired in crowds to the Turks and Tartars.

Country of the Cossacks on the Black Sea.

The descendants of these Cossacks still exist under a different name and in a different country. Catherine, by an ukase of the 30th of June 1792, ceded to the Zaporogues, who had distinguished themselves in the last war against the Turks, the peninsula of Taman and all the land bounded by the Feia and the Laba, between the Kuban and the sea of Azof. The extent of that territory is not less than 16272 square miles.[b] The people were from that time called the *Tchernomorski*, or the Cossacks on the Black Sea, they had the privilege of choosing their ataman, and fifteen thousand inhabitants of Little Russia were allowed to migrate with them to the new settlement. But they have voluntarily renounced their ancient customs; marriage is no longer unlawful, and the predatory warriors are now husbandmen and shepherds. Three thousand, who have enlisted in the service of Russia, make up at present six regiments. Their country, according to the limits to which we adhere, forms a part of Asia, it is contiguous to Circassia on the south, and the steppes of Astrakan on the east. The soil is fruitful and well watered, and if the banks of the Kuban be excepted, the climate is not unhealthy. But it is on these banks that the Tchernomorski settled and founded *Iekaterinodar*, their capital near rich pastures covered with unwholesome mists. The peninsula of Taman is sometimes changed into an island by the inundations of the Kuban, and is almost always exposed to pestilential vapours. In some parts of the same region, showers of viscous mud rise occasionally from the ground, they are denominated volcanoes by the Russians. The town of Taman is built on the site of the ancient *Phanagoria*, it is officially called *Tmoutaracan*, the name which it bore in the middle ages, when the capital of a small kingdom.

Clay volcanoes.

[b] Geographical miles, sixty of which are equal to a degree.

Cossacks of the Don.

The Cossacks on the Don form another great branch of the same people. They are not, as M. Muller supposes, descended from the Russians of Novgorod and Moscow; their language is not different from that of the Little Russians. It is likely that they settled gradually in the countries from which the Tartars were expelled. It may be inferred too that the new colonists obtained the Tartar name of Cossacks from their mode of life and their connexions with the former inhabitants, while those of Little Russia were so denominated, because they adopted the same military institutions. It is not improbable that some Tartars remained in these countries, mingled with the Russians, spoke in time their language, and became converts to the Greek church. The rapid increase in the population of the republick, the Tartar words still retained by the Cossacks on the Don, and the difference in their physiognomy tend to corroborate our opinion. The colonists formed a considerable state a short time after their migration. Many young men fled from the slavery which was then introduced in Russia, and added to their numbers. All were admitted into the rights of citizens, even the prisoners of war might share the same privileges. It was in the year 1570, after the campaign of the Turks against Astrakan, that the colonists fixed their capital at *Tsherkask*, which is 70 versts distant from the fortress of Azof. They took from their new residence the name of *Tsherkaski*.

Their nation was then one of the bulwarks of the empire, and they were protected by the czars, in the same way as the Cossacks of Little Russia had been protected by the kings of Poland. Privileges were conferred on them, land exempt from every impost was assigned to them on the frontier, but the emperors wished to subject them to a sort of military vassalage. The Cossacks on the Don were seen for the first time in the Russian armies in the year 1579; since that period, many battles have been decided by their courage; still their love of independence, and their avidity of plunder have on some occasions excited them to revolt.

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Country of the Donian Cossacks.

The Cossacks on the Don inhabit at present the plains watered by that river, and their country extends between the governments of Saratof, Astrakan, Woronesch or Voronez and Iekaterinoslav to the sea of Azof. Their territory is about 57,600 geographical square miles in extent, it was formerly larger, but, after an insurrection in 1708, a part was added to the neighbouring provinces. The settlers obtained the privileges they desired, and retained their military customs. The territory of the Donian Cossacks is an immense plain, wholly destitute of hills. Some parts of it are as fruitful as the Ukraine, but the soil in general is barren, the inhabitants have made little progress in the useful arts, and agriculture is neglected. The wealth of the fierce and indolent Cossack consists in cattle, and some subsist by their fisheries. The fish and caviar exported annually from the country amount in value to 500,000 roubles.[c] The culture of the ground, and rural labour are committed to Russian peasants, whom the Cossack hires for very moderate wages. The greater part of his time is spent in taking care of his horse, and the *tabounes* or herds of the rich are made up of five hundred or a thousand head, but the saddle horses only are sheltered in winter from the inclemency of the season. The Cossack horse, though small and lean, is swift and almost indefatigable. Whenever many of the Cossacks are gathered together, horse racing is almost their sole amusement.

Manners, habitations.

The women weave linen and cloth, they make pelisses, mantles and stockings, they take care of the gardens, the orchards and even the vineyards, which are more numerous in their country than in any other Russian province. The dwellings of the Cossacks are clean, and evince a degree of refinement which we look for in vain in the greater part of Russia. The houses are white, and provided with windows and chimneys, the inmates never shut their doors against the stranger, all of them practise the virtue of hospitality. Costly articles of furniture are seen

[c] A rouble is equal to four shillings and twopence.

in the houses of the wealthy, who are now desirous of acquiring knowledge, and many of them send their children to study at Petersburgh. A seminary, which is much frequented, has been established at Tcherkask, the chief town in the country. The principal church is adorned with many standards and other trophies collected in most parts of Europe. The inhabitants enjoy civil and political liberty, the monopolies of the crown are not felt, the people may make and sell as much brandy as they please, they pay nothing to the excise, they are exempt from the poll tax, the militia or conscription. If their presence is requisite on any extraordinary emergence, they must rise in mass, but the Cossacks are never unwilling to join the Russian armies, war is an amusement, not a hardship. The Cossack is never happier than on horseback, he is valiant in the battle, he delights in plunder.

Political liberty.

The Russian secretary of war signifies his instructions to the *ataman* or *hetman*, the chief or general of the military nation. The propositions of government are made known to the people, who decide by a majority of votes, whether or not the requisition ought to be obeyed, and in what manner it should be put in execution. Examples are on record, in which the majority have opposed the views of government. The czars have sometimes ceded to their wishes, in other instances the slightest opposition has been construed into a revolt. To form an aristocracy, or to attach the wealthiest families by honourable and hereditary distinctions, is the great object of the Russian cabinet; in this way, it is thought, the democracy may be undermined, or placed on a level with the other Russian governments.

Towns.

The villages of the Cossacks are called stantitzas, they contain from 150 to 400 houses; each stantitza has its elective magistrate, and forms a military company. There are few places in the country that merit the name of towns, and the few that do so, resemble large villages. Tcherkask[d]

[d] The town is called Tscherchaskoy by Dr. Clarke.

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or the capital which we have already mentioned, is built on a marsh, and supported on piles. The inhabitants sail in spring from house to house. The city is divided into eleven stantitzas, and contains fifteen thousand individuals. The number of habitations may amount to three thousand, and five persons may be allowed on an average for each house. The great quantity of timber used in the town for bridges, houses and streets, is brought by the Wolga, a sufficient supply could not be obtained by the Don. Some of the inhabitants are anxious to remove to Novoi-Tcherkask, which is officially designated the capital, but the greater number are loth to quit their present residence, although it is admitted to be unhealthy.[e] *Tziemlianskaia* is noted for its vineyards, and their produce is compared to Burgundy. The other Cossack grapes are mostly white, the wines from many of them are sparkling, and although few are of a good quality, the people are not indifferent about drinking them. Two great fairs are held at *Urupinskaia* and *Luganskaia*.

The Don.

The country of the Donian Cossacks is watered by the Don and its feeders, of which the Donetz or Danaetz is the most considerable. Some writers suppose the last river the same as the Tanais of the ancients, but it is more likely that the incorrect notions which the ancients had of the Wolga, led them to confound it with the Tanais. The Don issues from the lake Iwanow, and waters a hilly and fruitful country until it reaches Woronesch.[f] It is enclosed on the left, from that town to the confluence of the Donetz, by steep banks of chalk, but as it proceeds in its course, it enters an immense and unvaried plain, its streams are not confined by rocks, nor broken by cataracts. Its depth even in these plains is not less in winter than six or seven feet, but the water does not rise in summer to the height of two feet above its sandy bed. Navigation is thus prevented, and the water of the Don, like that of its feeders, is so bad that the inhabitants themselves can hardly

[e] Clarke, Chap. xiii.

[f] Voronez.

drink it. Much advantage, it is thought, might result if the river were united to the Wolga by means of the *Medweditza* or rather the *Ilawla*, but few boats could sail by such a passage from the want of water in the Don, and from the difference in the level, which is fifty feet higher on the side of the same river than on that of the Wolga.[g] The former receives from the Caspian steppes the *Manytsch*, of which the almost stagnant waters seem to mark the position of an ancient strait between the Caspian and the sea of Azof.

Sea of Azof.

The sea of Azof was more correctly styled the Palus Meotis by the ancients; it is formed by the Don and other rivers, and is not a sea but a marshy lake on a sandy and, in some places, an oozy channel. No rock has been observed in any part of it; its turbid waters[h] are well stored with fish, but they are shallow to a great distance from the banks. The surface is about twelve inches higher in spring than in the rest of the year. That branch of the lake which is called the Putrid Sea has been already mentioned.

Russian Calmucks.

A horde of Calmucks inhabit the country on the east of the Donian Cossacks, and are in some respects under the dominion of the military republick. They occupy the steppes by which the sea of Azof is separated from the Caspian; their territory is bounded by the Manytsch and the Kouma, and watered on the east by the Sarpa, a small feeder of the Wolga, which flows in a contrary direction from the principal river. The chain of hills that divide the basins of the Don and the Wolga, extends across the steppe. The declivities on the side of the Wolga are steep, but a large and sloping plain descends gently towards the Don. The level of the Caspian Sea at Astrakan, is admitted to be lower than the Sea of Azof by 150 feet, the Manytsch has, at least, an inclination of ten feet, and the hills on the banks of that

Isthmus of the Caspian.

g Lowitz, cited by Georgi, Beschreibung, t. I. p. 290.

h Its waters are brackish but not salt.

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river are not perhaps higher than 200 or 300 feet above the Caspian, and 50 or 100 above the Palus Meotis. It follows, therefore, that by deepening the bed of the Manytsch, it might be easy to form a communication between the two seas. Limestone abounds in the rocks on the steppe, which is mostly covered with verdant pastures, but some places on the east are unfruitful; a few oaks, mountain-ashes or willows display in that part of the country their scanty foliage. The wolf, the fox, a great variety of rats and mice, the marten and *felis chaus*, or wild cat of the marshes, the stag and hare, many kinds of ducks, and lastly, the dangerous scorpion-fly are the wild animals on the steppe. The number of Calmucks is not more than 30,000; they live between the Wolga and the Jaik or Ural, they belonged to that horde, the most of which fled in 1770 to Chinese Tartary, rather than submit to the vexatious oppression of Russia; such as remained faithful, agreed to cross the Wolga.[i]

The Wolga.

We have now arrived on the banks of the Wolga, and in the ancient kingdom or *khanat* of Astrakan. We shall only describe in this place the lower part of it, or the steppe which corresponds nearly with the Russian government of the same name, but extends on the east into the province of Suratow. The Wolga, or the largest river in Europe flows through that country into the Caspian sea. A rivulet rises in the forests of the Waldaic chain, in the neighbourhood of Wolchino-Werchovia, crosses the lakes Oselok, Piana and Wolga, receives the waters of the lake Seliger, and becomes navigable near Rjev-Wolodomirow, at which place its breadth is not less than 95 feet. It then flows eastwards to Kasan, where it is enlarged by the Kama, a very great river, turns to the south, and makes apparently for the sea of Azof; but unfortunately for the commerce of the Russians, its course is determined by the position of the Wolgaic hills, and it discharges itself into the Caspian Sea. Before it receives the Kama, its breadth

Breadth.

[i] Nomadische Streifereien by B. Bergmann. Nouv. Ann. des Voyages, t. XII. p. 253, &c.

is upwards of 600 feet, and it is more than 1200 after its junction with that river. It encompasses many islands in the vicinity of Astrakan, and its width there is about 14 English miles. M. Guldenstœd supposes its inclination on an average to be equal to six inches and a half in every four versts of its course;[j] hence, it may be calculated that the lakes which form its source, are little more than 330 feet higher than its embouchure. The depth of its current varies from seven to eighteen feet. Its water, though not good, is drinkable, and it abounds with several varieties of the sturgeon and different kinds of fish. The valley of the Wolga from Ostaschow, is an extensive flat from one to twenty versts in breadth, bounded by sloping plains from twenty to eighty feet in height, which are formed by layers of argil, marl, gypsum, sandstone and coal, or of the same substances as the neighbouring ridge. The course of the Wolga is regular and calm, but the river has made a passage for itself near Nischnei-Novgorod, and, by the sinking of the ground thus occasioned, several large buildings in the town have been overturned.

The Wolga is speedily swollen by excessive rains and by the melting of snow, so that the streams are diverted into the channels of the feeders, and the flux of their waters is thus impeded. The river during part of the winter is covered with ice, but there are always many apertures in the south, from which currents of air escape, hence they are termed the *lungs* of the Wolga. The *polumna* often change their position, and travellers are thus exposed to imminent danger. Carriages pass on the Wolga two months in the year, and in summer it is crowded with boats. More than five thousand barks constructed in the well-wooded countries of Northern Russia, descend the river, and are loaded with all kinds of commodities, but as these vessels cannot easily return or sail against the stream, the most of them are sold at Astrakan; and it is thought by government that the forests may in this way be speedily

Polumna or lungs of the Wolga.

[j] Four versts are equal to 2 + ⅔ English miles.

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exhausted. The *ladia*, one sort of these barks, carry sometimes 100,000 *pouds* of salt.[k] The ordinary burthen of the *Kayoulki* is about 35,000 pouds, they are laden with grain, and the *Nosedi* with timber. The Wolga encloses the central ridge of Russia, and receives the streams of the Oka, the principal river in that fertile region; it communicates in the upper part of its course by the canal of *Wyschnei-Wolotchok* with the lakes Ladoga and Newa; lastly, the Kama conveys to it all the waters of eastern Russia. That large river may thus be considered the great outlet for the inland commerce of the empire. The town of Astrakan may be supposed an Alexandria on a Scythian Nile, but the river enters an inland sea, it does not communicate with the ocean, and the countries that it waters, are inhabited by barbarous nations; still however, the advantages which human industry may derive from the majestic courses of the Wolga and the Danube are not as yet realized.

Name of the Wolga.

The word Wolga, says M. Georgi, signifies *great* in the Sarmatian, it might have been as well had the writer explained what is meant by the *Sarmatian* language. If the old Slavonic or rather the Proto-Slavonic, which was spoken by the vassal tribes of the ancient Scythians, be understood by that incorrect term, we think the etymology not unlikely, although its accuracy cannot now be ascertained.[l] The Finnic tongues furnish us with a more easy explanation; Volgi signifies a valley, now the bed of the Wolga extends in the great valley of Russia. The Tartars called the Wolga the *Ethele* or *Itel*, which according to some philologists means liberal or profuse, according to others, merely the river. The last name is still retained by the Tartars under the form of *Ichtil-gad*. The most ancient designation is that of the *Rha* or *Rhas*, which has been thought a corruption of the Araxes, a river in Ar-

[k] The poud is equal to 40 pounds.

[l] *Wolkoi*, feminine *Wolkoia* or *Wolkaia*, might have been in ancient times synonymous with *Weliki*.

menia, although the two words are radically different in the Armenian language.[m] The Morduates, a Finnic tribe, still term it the *Rhaou*, a name which in their dialect was probably expressive of rain water.[n] All the etymologies are involved in the darkness of a remote antiquity.

Physical description of Astrakan.

The fertility of Lower Egypt depends on the overflowing of the Nile, but the province of Astrakan is not much benefited by the inundations of the Wolga. The last river does not bring along with it a rich alluvial deposit, and its waters do not fructify the ground. The country that is not inundated by the Wolga consists chiefly of heaths and downs, which, if they be not wholly sterile, are ill adapted for agriculture. As it seldom or never rains in that part of Russia, the people are obliged to water artificially every field that is cultivated on the banks of the river. It must be admitted, however, that the dry and arid heaths are covered about the beginning of spring with fine flowers and useful herbs, with asparagus, capers, onions, and liquorice. The stem of the last plant grows to the height of three feet and a half, and its roots, though sometimes as thick as a man's arm, are by no means of an inferior kind. Salsola or glass-wort grows in profusion, and its quality is such as might have been anticipated from a soil so much impregnated with salt. Masses of saline crystals are observed on the beds of lakes *Etsen*, *Bagd* and several others, and the mountain of *Bogd-Ola* is overtopped by a salt hill. There are two steppes in which the same substance predominates, the one situated between the Don, the Wolga and Caucasus, is called the *Step-Astrakanskia*, the other lies between the Wolga and the Ural, and is termed the *Step-Kalmytzkaia*, because it was formerly inhabited by the Calmucks.

Both of these immense plains, according to M. Pallas, must have been at one time covered with the waters of the

[m] Saint-Martin, Mem. sur l'Armanie, I. p. 38, 39, 63; II. p. 228, 403.
[n] Busching, Erbheschreibung, I. 770. Klaproth, Asia Polyglotta.

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Caspian sea. A sandy but verdant ridge extends in the eastern Steppe above the downs formed by argillaceous and saline deposits. The Calmucks call it *Naryn*, and the Russians *Rynpeski*. The animals that frequent them are the tarantula, the bustard, the pheasant and pendulino, the cony and the *saigak*, a species of wild goat, of which the horns are not opaque but transparent, it outstrips the swiftest dogs.

Ridge of Rynpeski.

Fertile districts.

The fruitful country in the government of Astrakan is not large, it includes only the low districts on the banks of the Wolga, the Ural and Terek. The vegetable productions arrive at an extraordinary size, and they consist of arbutes, gourds and cucumbers nearly two feet in length, roots and potherbs of every kind, peaches, apricots, mulberries and grapes. All these fruits are very large, a fact that is often repeated by the Russian writers, and the country of Astrakan is, according to them, a terrestrial paradise. But the panegyrists are commissioned by government to persuade husbandmen to migrate to the province; foreigners may therefore judge more impartially, they may speak the truth without disguise. The great expansion of plants and fruits is not wonderful, because they are abundantly watered by artificial means; secondly, because the soil is impregnated with saline and bituminous substances; and lastly, because the heat is excessive during two months in the year. The disagreeable, watery and insipid taste by which all the vegetable productions in Astrakan are distinguished, may be accounted for by the same causes. The Delta of the Wolga may one day be a valuable acquisition to the industrious Russians, but they have to struggle at present against natural disadvantages. The heat is most oppressive, the thermometer rises sometimes so high as 103° of Fahrenheit. The air in a great part of the government is unwholesome from the saline exhalations with which it is surcharged. The north winds are often the harbingers of so intense a cold, that the thermometer falls to 22° below zero. The principal arm of the Wolga, which is 2300 feet in breadth, is frozen in winter, heavy

Excess of heat and cold.

sledges are dragged on it, and the ice remains about two months. The town of Astrakan found the expense of keeping up its vineyards too great, and it was decreed that they should be divided and sold in lots. The grapes are very large and very watery, the little wine made from them is drunk by the common people. The attempts to cultivate the olive have failed, and the apricot does not succeed unless much labour be bestowed on it, the trees are often destroyed by severe frosts. Thus excessive heat and extreme cold are the great disadvantages of the climate.

Towns.

The town of Astrakan is inhabited by 40,000 individuals, but in the fishing season the population amounts sometimes to 70,000. It is built on one of the islands formed by the Wolga, its numerous churches, its orchards and vineyards, its large suburbs and citadel, which, like those of Kasan, Nischnei-Novgorod, and Moscow, is called the the Krem or Kremlin, give it an imposing appearance; but the houses are for the most part built of wood, the streets are dirty and unpaved, the ooze and the putrid fish that are left on the land during the vernal inundations, render the air disagreeable and unhealthy. The trade with Persia and India is considerable, and many of the people are employed in the manufacture of cotton, or in dressing Morocco leather. Russians, Armenians, Tartars, Indians and Persians might be mentioned among the inhabitants. The followers of Brahma form a society of batchelors, they reside in a large wooden building without windows; their refectories are clean, and well provided with fruits and pastry. The greater number live by usury. The Tartars are retail traders, but many of them are much in debt to the Indians, and they are often compelled to impignorate and grant the *usufruct* of their wives to their creditors. The *Achrichanski* are sprung from the Indians and the Tartar women.[o] *Krasnoiar* and *Ienotaievsk*, two other towns on the Wolga, are comparatively of little consequence; *Kisliar*, a place of

[o] Heyn, quoted by Georgi, Beschreib. II. p. 947.

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trade, and *Mosdok* are more important, but they are built on the Terek or narrow frontier, which according to our division is situated beyond the limits of Europe.

Country of the Uralian Cossacks.

The country of the Uralian Cossacks lies on the other side of the Steppe which separates the Wolga from the Ural; it forms a long and narrow belt, consisting chiefly of sandy and marshy land, and extends along the course of the last river. The Ural descends from the Ural mountains, and it is so called in conformity to a decree of Catherine II. Its waters flow in a channel without rocks, and are sufficiently deep to be navigable for small vessels, but its solitary banks are covered with reeds, the noise and bustle of trade have not been heard since the destruction of Saraitschik, a Tartar city.[p]

Fisheries on the Ural.

The Cossacks still repair to the fishing stations at fixed seasons of the year, and it is a curious spectacle to see them assembled when the river is frozen. Some thousand fishermen arrive in sledges at a place appointed, and every man is provided with a spear, several poles, and other instruments. They arrange themselves in a long line, and if those in the rear should attempt to take the place of the others before them, their instruments are instantly broken by the guards of the station. The men, however, evince often a great degree of impatience, and the same *feeling* appears to be communicated to the horses which are trained for these expeditions. As soon as the *hetman of the fishers* departs in his sledge, all the rest fly after him with the rapidity of the wind. The ice is cut, their spears are cast, and a forest of poles rises on the river. Fishmongers, assembled even from the interior of the empire, purchase the fish before they are taken out of the water, and in a short time the sturgeon, the *huso* and *sewruga* quiver on the ice. The couriers of "the *great Uralian army*," travel at full gallop, and deposit the spoils at the court of Petersburgh. The value of the fish (including that of the caviar and isinglass) imported

[p] It is called Saracanco by travellers.

into the interior, amounts to two millions of roubles,[1] and the duties imposed by the "*ministers of the army*," is not less than 100,000, a sum by which the fund accumulated by that administration is principally formed. The Uralian Cossacks, enriched by the sale of their fish, and also by their cattle, horses and wool, live in affluence; their houses, at least those in Uralsk or the capital, are commodious and clean, strangers are hospitably received, the dress of the inmates corresponds with their fortune, and the turbans or head dresses of the women are adorned with pearls. These Cossacks belong to the sect of the *Roskolniki*, and for that reason they abhor tobacco, and retain their beards.

Towns, manners, &c.

The people are now at peace with the Russians, but their history is filled with the recital of wars and bloodshed. Freebooters separated from the Donian Cossacks, and settled along the course of the lower Wolga; travellers, merchants and ambassadors were alike exposed to their attacks. Ivan II. sent an army against them, and those that were made prisoners suffered dreadful torments, they were suspended by the sides to hooks of iron. Driven from the Ural, they laid waste the shores of the Caspian sea, and, having taken Saraitchik, they put every inhabitant to the sword, plundered the houses, and opened the graves in the vain expectation of finding concealed wealth. Their independent republick founded on the banks of the Ural, then the Jaik, submitted to the protection of Russia, and preserved its privileges. But the sanguinary revolt of Pugatschew was not viewed with indifference by these fierce and restless men, they flocked to his standard, and obeyed him as their chief. Vanquished at last by the Russians, their national assemblies were abolished, and their artillery destroyed. The present population is supposed not to exceed 30,000 individuals of both sexes.

Historical remarks.

The same people undertook in the sixth and in the

Their expeditions in Asia.

[1] A rouble is equal to four shillings and two-pence.

BOOK CIV. beginning of the seventh century, two remarkable expeditions; in the first they demolished Urganz, a great commercial city near the Aral lake, in the second they took Khivah, and kept possession of it for more than a twelvemonth, it was then retaken by surprise, and in consequence of the negligence of the guard. In both the one and the other, they have left a memorable example of what may be achieved by a few brave and resolute men.

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EUROPE.

Eastern Russia. Finno-Hunns or Uralians.

We shall examine the northern and eastern countries in European Russia, after having made some remarks on the ancient race that appears to have inhabited the whole of that region. The *Laplanders, Finns, Esthonians, Biarmians, Wotiaks, Woguls, Ostiaks, Tchuwaches, Tcheremisses* and some other tribes are sprung from one and the same people. Their physiognomy, language and customs are sufficient proofs of their relationship; at the same time, it cannot be denied that such differences exist amongst them, as to entitle us to infer that the early history of the people is mixed with fable, or involved in obscurity. Asiatic hordes might have governed the country, mingled with the conquered, and by their intercourse, and by the usurpation of a dominant tribe, the national character of the people might have been modified. The Finns were settled during the age of Tacitus and Strabo in the central provinces of Poland, they were denominated the *Fenni* by the historian, and the *Zoumi* by the geographer. The accuracy of the accounts given by these writers has been since confirmed, and the language still spoken in Lithuania is a monument of its former inhabitants. The *Wiatitches*, an ancient tribe in the government of Orel, were, according to Nestor, of Finnic origin. It has been seen that the Hungarian is connected with the

Finno-Hunnic race.

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Finnic tongues, and the migrations to central Russia, which are recorded in the history of that once powerful and numerous people, might have been discovered by the names of Sousdal, the river Ugra and the town of Lebedian. Many geographical terms indicate the wide dispersion of the Finnic tribes. The word *ioug*, which denotes a river, is common to more than one feeder of the Don; the name of the Wolga is probably of Finno-Hungarian origin, the Ural mountains were for ages called the *Poyas*, a Finnic noun, that signifies summits. It is very likely that the particular division of the horizon in use among the Finlanders, is a part of an astronomical system which must have been formed between the fortieth and fiftieth parallels, and consequently the civilization of the Finns must have commenced on the shores of the Black and Caspian seas.[a] But although it be demonstrated that Finnic tribes peopled northern, eastern and southern Russia at a very remote epoch, it does not follow that they occupied exclusively, or even ruled over that immense region, and it is almost superfluous to add that several questions connected with the subject cannot be readily answered.

Connexion between the Scythians and Finns.

Thus it has been asked if the Scythians were Finns. Although no certain information can be obtained, it is in our opinion more probable that the former people were composed of numerous hordes, some of which led a wandering life, others cultivated the ground, and both were in a state of vassalage, or under the dominion of a ruling tribe. Such has ever been the political condition of the Asiatic nations in the centre and the west. The introduction of castes might have taken place after the union of tribes, at all events the system of castes is less applicable than that of aggregate tribes to the conquering Scythians, who, according to the testimony of Herodotus, migrated from Media. It is thus that the seemingly contradictory statements of the ancients concerning the Scythians may be best reconciled. The dominant tribe in Europe on the Tanais and

[a] Mnemosyne, Journal de Finlande.

the Borysthenes was the same as the one that ruled in Asia on the banks of the Oxus and Iaxartes; hence the identity of their national name, a circumstance that cannot be attributed to chance. The people who submitted to their empire were not all of the same race, they consisted probably of Finns on the Tanais, and Slavonians on the Borysthenes. The resemblance observed in their language and in some words cited by Aristophanes and Pliny may illustrate our hypothesis.[b] The *royal Scythians*, the rulers of the empire, spoke neither the Slavonic, Finnic, Gothic nor German. The primitives in their language were connected with others in the ancient Zend, Persian and Sanscrit. *Exampiaios*, which Herodotus tells us, signifies a sacred road, may be derived from the Zend adjective *eschae*, pure, luminous, holy, and *pad* or *pai*, a road, the last word is a root common to the Persian and Sanscrit. *Arima*, one, is *oima* in Zend, and *Airopata*, "the women who murder men," or the Scythian denomination of the Amazons, is compounded of *aior*, a man, or *air* in the Armenian and Zend, or *weyor* in some Caucasian dialects, and

[b] *Skolotes* or the true name of the Scythians, is derived from a Zend word signifying a head or chief.

A soldier of the Scythian guard, which was intrusted with the police of Athens, is introduced in the Thesmo-phores of Aristophanes. The Scythian cannot pronounce the *ph* or *f*, but confounds it with the *p*; now, no Polish words that are not of foreign importation, commence with an *f*. The same person changes frequently the masculine and feminine genders into the neuter, and adds *o* to the last syllable, a letter which is still a common termination of the Russian neuter nouns. Lastly, the Scythian, like the Slavonian, uses the *t* instead of the *theta* or *th* of the Greeks. These are striking indications of the Slavonic character of the Scythians who were sold to the Athenians. But that people were not the same as the royal Scythians, they were their *serfs* or vassals, who were brought into Greece as slaves and mercenaries. Their inability to pronounce not only the *theta* but the *χ* or *ch* of the Greeks and Germans, proves at least that they were not Goths, and we believe that none of the Scythian words cited by Herodotus are of Gothic origin. *Silis* or the Scythian name of the Tanais is derived from the Slavonic adjective, *Silen*, the strong or powerful. Slavonic roots and compounds may be traced in the names of the kings on the Bosphorus, and the chiefs of Olbia. The Scythians were probably confounded with the mass of the nations over which they ruled.

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pata, which signifies equally to kill and to subdue. Oito-Syros or the Scythian Apollo seems to have derived his name from *aita*, father, and *surya*, light, and *Tamimasades* or their Neptune means the son of the billows. Our researches cannot be presented to the public in their present shape, they were interrupted by the death of a friend who gave us access to all the treasures in his library, still we believe in the conclusion at which we have arrived; and the subject may ere long be ably elucidated by a distinguished philologist.

Connexion between the Finns and the Huns.

Were the Huns of Finnic origin? That question, which is more intricate than the former, has only been lately agitated, and it is not likely to be soon resolved—Yet it may be one day answered in the same way as the other concerning the Scythians. All the hereditary deformity of the Monguls or Calmucks, the dominant tribe, was united in the person of Attila; but the *Chuni* and the *Ounni* of the Greek geographers, the Kuns of the Hungarians, the European Huns, and a race connected with the Finnic tribes, made up the great body of the army, and the Hunnic nation.

We now pass to an easier task, that of indicating the geographical position of the Finno-Hunnic people. The race is dispersed from Scandinavia to the north of Asia, and from the last region to the Wolga and the Caspian sea. Their red or yellow hair, prominent cheek bones and sallow complexion, the thin beard and large occiput are characteristic of their physiognomy; but the Woguls and some Laplanders may be distinguished by their flat features, and dark and coarse hair. Forests and places in the neighbourhood of marshes were for a long time their principal abodes, hunting and fishing their favourite occupations. The Russians always called them *Tchoudes* or strangers; the Scandinavians and Goths termed them *Finne*, a word which is probably derived from *Fiende*, an enemy, or *Fen*, a marsh. The name of Fenni cannot be of modern date, since it was used by Tacitus; but it remained wholly unknown to the people to whom it was

applied. The ancient national name of the Finns is now lost, it is even doubtful if they had any. They style themselves at present the *Sami*, *Soumi* and *Souomi-Lainen* or the people of the country. The early part of their history is uncertain and fabulous; indeed, with the exception of the Huns and Magiars or Hungarians, none of these nations, although very ancient, populous and widely scattered, have ever become powerful. Their national existence has been transitory, never permanent. No conqueror was ever sprung from them; on the contrary, in those ages, the history of which is faithfully recorded, they have always been the victims or dupes of more active and enterprising neighbours. No annals of their achievements were ever written, their history can only be collected from that of their conquerors—the Scandinavian Goths and Russians.

Progressive discoveries.

Additional facts relative to the Finns, Permians, Laplanders and other tribes that are now extinct, or exist no longer under the same name, have been discovered since the ninth and tenth centuries in the Saga and in some Russian and Scandinavian monuments. The Finnic nations settled on the banks of the Wolga and in Siberia, were unknown before the conquest of these countries by the Russians. The same people, it is said, were mentioned in the *Edda*, the ancient system of Icelandic and Runic mythology. "They were the dwarfs who lived under ground, extracted metals from the depths of the earth, practised sorcery and magic, and often deceived the gods of Asgard." Their religious notions were those of a barbarous people, their credulity converted every natural object into an idol. *Joumala* was the name of the supreme being, and they consecrated, like the Germans, their forests and mountains. The Permians appear to have been the only tribe amongst them, that had a large temple or, at least, a sacred enclosure adorned with altars. The Icelandic historians denominate that people, the Biarmians, and the Russians call them the *Permiaki*. It is known however that in the middle ages, the Scandinavian pirates gave the name of Per-

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Temple of Joumala.

mia to the whole country between the White sea and the Ural. To plunder the temple of Joumala was the great end of the Scandinavian piratical incursions, and the same edifice was the subject of poetical descriptions, which are probably much exaggerated. According to these accounts the temple was constructed with much art, the wood was of a rare quality, it was inlaid with gold and precious stones, of which the lustre was reflected on every surrounding object. A golden crown, embellished with twelve diamonds, was placed on the head of the god, his collar was worth 300 marcs of gold, and the rest of his dress exceeded in value *three Greek vessels richly laden.* A gold vase rested on the knees of the statue, it might have held as much water as would have quenched the thirst of four men, but it was filled with precious stones and costly metals. So much wealth attracted all the corsairs of the north, and it was thought a proof of bravery to have carried away an ornament from the temple. Many men set out every year from Heligoland, and several kings of Norway went to pillage Permia, and returned with a rich booty. But Scandinavian mariners, who were not addicted to piracy, visited the coasts for commercial purposes.[c] The Permians were wealthy, and their country was the theatre of an extensive commerce. The Persians and Indians transported their merchandise on the Caspian, ascended the Wolga and the Kama to the ancient town of *Tcherdyn* on the *Kolva*, a place of great trade, from which the Permians carried the goods to the banks of the Petchora, on the shores of the Frozen sea, where they exchanged them for pelisses and other articles that were sold in the east. Many of their towns now in ruins prove at least that they were once inhabited by flourishing and civilized people. The caravans of the Persians, Armenians and other Asiatic nations repaired to *Bolgar*, the ancient capital of the Bulgarians. That fact cannot now be disputed, it has been placed beyond a doubt by the inscriptions on the coins, and by several Arabic monuments

[c] Saga of Saint-Olaf, ch. cxlii. See the *Heims-Kringla* by Snorron.

that have been from time to time discovered.[d] Permia was not exposed to the incursions of the Norwegians after the year 1217; but before that period, (probably in the eleventh or twelth century,) the country was conquered by the republicans of Novgorod, and Russian colonists were sent by them to keep the inhabitants in subjection. Christianity was introduced amongst them in 1372 by Stephen, a monk and afterwards a bishop. The town of Novgorod and the Great Duke Vassile Dmitrivich contended about the possession of Permia in the end of the fourteenth or beginning of the fifteenth century, and the townsmen were at last compelled to relinquish all their claims. The Permians retained for some time the liberty of choosing their magistrates, but Ivan[e] the first appointed a governor in 1543, and the subordinate offices were held by the most distinguished of the natives. The descendants of that populous and flourishing nation are now reduced to an insignificant tribe, that has lost in a great degree its national character by its union with the Russians. The *Siriaines* or the people in the government of Wologda do not differ from the Permiaks, and, like them, are called *Komi*. The *Wotiaki* or the ancient *Woti* of the Novgordians may be included with these tribes. Such are the three branches of the Finno-Uralians. Finno-Uralians.

The *Woguls* inhabited the confines of Asia, on the east, or rather on the north-east of the Finno-Uralians; and, as their language abounded in Hungarian words, they have been considered the ancestors of the Magiars. But we are apt to suppose them of Calmuck origin from their personal deformity. They might have been subdued by the Hungarians in ancient times, or they might have mixed with them, and thus acquired their language. The Hanoverians have left us an example of the same kind, relatively to the Wends of Dannenberg. The *Ostiaks* of *Obi* are a tribe of the same sort, their history is unknown, Tribes of Jougoria.

[d] Rasmussen, Mémoires sur les relations commerciales des Arabes avec la Scandinavie à travers la Russie.

[e] Ivan or Iwan is in Russian synonymous with John.

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and it is only by their dialect that their connexion can be proved with the Finns generally, and the Hungarians in particular. The *Iougourian* or *Ougourian* tribes constituted a part of the Magiar empire; but the nucleus of that empire, or the first country of the Hungarians must be sought in more southern latitudes, in less sterile and more populous regions.

Western Finns.

The second branch of the nation is made up of the western Finns or the Finns on the Baltic, who were successively discovered during the expeditions of the Swedes and the Danes, which were continued at different intervals from the ninth to the fourteenth century. Their principal tribes, the *Quaines* or *Cayanians*, the *Ymis*, Iemes or *Haimes*, the *Wesses*, *Kyriales*, *Esthes* and *Lives* appear to have been less civilized than the Permians; but they had, however, their religious notions, some national songs, and were not perhaps ignorant of the art of writing in Runic characters. Many Gothic words, it may be easily supposed, might have been introduced into their language, a natural consequence not only of their intercourse with the Swedes, Danes and Germans, but of their more ancient connexion with the Goths themselves. Their customs and mythological traditions might have been partly borrowed from the same people. These tribes, though harassed, and in a great measure subdued by the Scandinavians, escaped (thanks to their position) the more degrading and oppressive yoke of the Mongol-Tartars and Russian conquerors. Thus, notwithstanding the influence of the Goths and Germans, they still retain the most characteristic qualities of the Finnic race. They consist at present of the *Lives*, or descendants of the ancient inhabitants of Livonia, the *Esthes* in Esthonia, the *Ischores* in Ingria, the *Finlanders* or *Finns* proper in the country to which they have given their name, the *Quaines* or Cayanians, who form only a northern subdivision of the Finlanders, and are now scattered on the shores of Norwegian Lapland, and the *Carelians* or *Kyri-*

ales or people under the dominion of a king,[f] whose country extended to Olonetz, and who were in ancient times connected with the Wotiakes and Siriaines.

Laplanders.

The geographer observes on the north of the western Finns, and in the northern extremity of Europe, a people of pygmies mixed with some families of an ordinary size; but the personal deformity of the Woguls predominates, and their language resembles the Hungarian more than the other western Finnic dialects. The cause of the anomaly shall be afterwards examined in its proper place.

Wolgaic Finns.

The Finns on the Wolga, or the Bulgarian Finns form the third great branch of the nation. They are sprung from the aborigines, or at all events from the earliest known inhabitants of the regions watered by the great river of Russia. They were in ancient times oppressed not only by the Huns and Roxolani, who were perhaps of Gothic origin, but by the Hungarians and Petchenegues or Patzinakites. The Bulgarians and Chazares founded empires in these countries, but their history is little known. The Mongol-Tartars flocked thither, and the Russian czars extended their dominions and Slavonic system of colonization over the confused mass of nations. It is not wondeful that the physical character or moral conditions of a people so often subdued and so often oppressed by conquering hordes, has been modified or changed. The Wolgaic Finns are not unlike the Tartars, but the marks of their ancient origin are not wholly lost. The *Tcheremisses* call themselves Mari, and reside in the government of Casan; their dialect is mixed with the Tartar. The *Tchouvaches* or, according to ancient travellers, the *Souiasches* adored *Thor*, the god of the Scandinavians. The Morduates, who inhabited the governments of Nisihgorod and Casan, were divided into two distinct people, that spoke different dialects; but although they have

[f] From *Karalaus*, a king in Lithuanian, and probably in ancient Slavonic; or from *Kyros*, the Greek title of the Czars.

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now mixed with each other, the one tribe is called *Mokschad* and the other *Ersad*. All these states form a part of the Wolgaic Finns. The *Meschtcheriakes* are composed of Finns and Turks, but their Finnic character is very imperfectly preserved. The *Teptiaires*, another mixture of the same people, may still be considered a Finnic branch. The ancient identity between the Baschkires and Hungarians is founded on the testimony of Rubruquis, a traveller of the fourteenth century, but that tribe, though of mixed origin, is not now different from the Tartar hordes.

Description of the country.

All the Finnic nations at present in Russia form a population of nearly three millions. The western Finns amount to 1,800,000, the Uralian Finns to 220,000, and the Wolgaic to 900,000.

Government of Orenburg.

Having mentioned briefly the nations in eastern Russia, we shall attempt to describe the countries which they inhabit. The governments are so extensive that they may be considered so many separate regions or physical subdivisions. The large government of Orenburg or Ufa is not less, nay it is larger than the whole Prussian monarchy; but a great part of it is uninhabited, and its population does not exceed a million of individuals. The *Bielaia*, a feeder of the Kama, waters the inland and northern districts, and its white and turbid streams flow in a bed of marl. It passes between limestone rocks, and is confined near its confluence by calcareous and argillaceous hills. The bones of huge animals, now extinct, have been discovered on its banks or in adjacent caverns; its waters are, for the most part, exhausted in summer, and are ill adapted for navigation. The *Sim*, another river in the same country, waters calcareous districts, and is wholly lost during summer in a subterranean lake. One of its feeders flows during the spring in an open channel, and is enlarged by the principal river at the distance of a verst and a half beyond its entrance into the cavern. Some notice has been already taken of the Ural, or the river in the southern countries of the government. The northern part of the same region is crowned by the southern chains of the great

Uralian range, which has been included in our account of Siberia. These chains abound in iron and copper, a great quantity of ore is obtained from them, and it is not many years since 4110 workmen were employed in forging iron, and 4,970 were engaged in the copper works. The mountains become gradually lower beyond the summit of *Pawdinskoi-Kamen*, which is 6800 feet above the level of the Caspian sea. The Baschkirian Urals form a long ridge of hills on the west of the Ural, but none of their summits are distinctly marked; they are covered with a thin layer of earth, some stunted birch, alder and asp trees. The hills descend on one side towards the channel of the Ural, and on the other towards the great plain of the Wolga. The only name by which they are known is that of *Obstchei-Sirt*, a term that signifies mountains common to all, and serves to distinguish them from the other Ural districts in which the forests are set apart for the use of the mines. Beds of freestone, calcareous rocks, shells and sandstone mixed with argil and marl, are the component parts of the ridge, which extends to the government of Astrakhan, and terminates in the sandy hills of *Rynpeski*.

Iron and copper works.

Obstchei-Sirt.

Each basin and each group might form the subject of geological remarks in a detailed system of physical geography; but we must choose from such a variety, and confine ourselves to what appears most worthy of notice. A series of hills near the river *Dioma* exhibits the phenomenon of isolated masses of fine and compact granite, rising in the form of immense crystals. The workmen of the mines point them out to strangers, and call them *the islands*. There are many grottoes and caverns in the basin of the *Ik*, in which sandstone, calcareous rocks and alabaster predominate. The basin of the *Sok* passes into the government of Simbirsk, and a chain of hills (the *Socolo-Gori*) extends in a direction parallel to its course, and follows the river to the Wolga; although they appear to be transition rocks, springs impregnated with sulphur rush from their sides. Twelve large sulphur springs were observed by M. Pallas within the distance of thirty versts, all of them were situated in the

Granite islands.

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neighbourhood of Sergiewsk near the banks of the Surgot, a small river, and the Schumbut, a rivulet that falls into it. These springs are never frozen, and so much sulphur is deposited from them, that mines were formerly worked in the district. A large stream enters a deep basin, and forms the *Sulphur Lake* or *Sernoie-Ozero*, which is five versts distant from the village of *Ischtulkina*. The water of the lake is transparent, and strata of yellow and olive-coloured sulphur are observed in its channel. The surrounding atmosphere, even at the distance of two versts, is infected with a very disagreeable odour. A brook that issues from it, is so turbid and white that the Tartars have given it the descriptive name of *Urian-Ly* or *curdled milk*, the Russians call it *Molaschnai-reka*, or *the river of milk*. Beds of ashes and calcined stones were discovered in the vicinity by M. Pallas. A large spring of liquid asphaltos rises near Semenovo, pits are dug beyond it in the direction of Sergiewsk, and the same substance is extracted from them. The steep banks of the Wolga near Kostitchi abound in bitumen, which is now made into sealing wax. The same calcareous banks near Sernoi-Gorodok are mixed with crystals of sulphur as transparent as amber. It is unfortunate that such a country has not been more frequently visited by physical geographers.[8]

Sulphur Lake.

River of milk.

Orenburg is the only town of much importance in the government; it forms a point of contact between Asia and Europe, its population exceeds 20,000 souls, it is surrounded with fortifications, and is thus a place of defence against the incursions of the independent Tartars. The Russian caravans that repair to Bucharia, and the Bucharian caravans, by which the merchandise of Asia is conveyed into Russia, pass through the town. The Russians

Town of Orenburg.

[8] Pallas, Voyages I. p. 180, 195. Mémoires sur l'histoire de Russie, par M. Muller, t. IV. 451. Rytsckow, Topographia Orenburgskaia, Petersburg, 1762. See the German translation of the last work by Busching.

and Bucharians strive to cheat each other, and to monopolize the trade; the Armenian has engaged in the contest, but the Israelite has not hitherto taken any active part. The Bucharians traverse in their caravans almost the whole of Asia from one end to the other; China, India, Persia and Russia are some of the countries that they visit. Gold dust, Persian pieces of money, lapis lazuli, and precious stones from India, raw and dressed cotton, sheep skins and many other articles are conveyed by these traders into Russia. The Bucharians travel in caravans of thirty or forty merchants, each individual has from five to ten camels loaded with goods, but some of their caravans consist of four or five hundred camels. They are obliged to pass the territory of the Kirguis-Cossacks, who exact from them two ducats for every camel; the merchants receive in exchange an escort of cavalry, but the guard is not always a security against their being pillaged.

Commerce with Asia.

The Kirguis are styled the subjects of the czar, an honour of which they are wholly unworthy; they bring every year to Orenburg sixty thousand sheep and ten thousand horses; they export different kinds of cloth, coarse linen, tin, glass, coral beads, and other frivolous ornaments, which serve to adorn their women or horses.

They likewise purchase a great many eagles; these birds are highly prized by the Kirguis, who train them to hunt the wolf, the fox and the gazelle. Every eagle is not of the same value, a good judge knows from its appearance and certain marks, whether it can be easily trained; he will part with a swift horse for one, and not give a sheep for another.

Eagles.

The imports of all the towns in the district and in a small part of Siberia, amount to 3,000,000 roubles, the exports do not exceed a third part of that sum. The town of Orenburg is a place of banishment, and one of its largest buildings is the workhouse erected by Reimsdorf, the philanthropic governor; more than a thousand criminals are sometimes

Other towns.

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confined in it. *Oufa*, once the capital of the government, is situated in the centre of the country, and peopled by 6000 souls. *Troizsk* is a commercial town, and the Kirguis in the interior repair to it. The only other places of any consequence are *Tschelebinsk*, a small town with a population of 1000 inhabitants, and *Kargala*, a large burgh, at which the Tartars of Casan carry on a flourishing trade.

Baschkirs.

All the people in the government amount to 1,000,000; one half of them are Russians, and members of the Greek church, the rest are Mahometans, and differ little from the Tartars in their manners and customs. The Baschkirs, however, may be distinguished from their neighbours; they are sprung from the Hungarians and Tartars, and their mussulman rites are mixed with the ceremonies of a primitive and rude worship. Sacrifices are offered to the sun, the head of a horse is placed above their hives, and the festival of the plough is not widely different from a religious observance of the Chinese. The *Mollah* or priest, who officiates at the marriage ceremony, presents an arrow to the bridegroom, and inculcates the necessity of bravery to enable him to protect his wife. No traces of their ancient language are left, and a Tartar dialect is now spoken by all of them. Their wealth consists in cattle, horses and bees; their food in winter is butcher meat, cakes and honey. A large bottle filled with *koumiss*, a strong drink made from mare's milk, is the great ornament of their dirty cottages. They drink the juice of the birch tree in spring, a liquor which purifies the blood and restores them to health; they become fat, like their flocks, in the fine weather, their principal sustenance is then fresh milk, and their days are spent in rural amusements or pastoral labour. The bear is very fond of honey, and many of these animals are caught in the well-contrived snares with which the Bashkirs surround their innumerable hives. The troops that they furnish to the Russian armies are armed with a bow,

Mechtscheriaikes.

a lance, a helmet and a coat of mail. The *Mechtscheriaikes* settled in the fourteenth century, near the embou-

chure of the Oka, and in the neighbourhood of Nischnei-Novgorod; some of them live in the country of the Baschkirs, but they may be easily distinguished from the other inhabitants by their barbarous and singular dress, which is made of horses hides.[h] The Teptiaires are a number of Tartars, Wolgaic Finns and Baschkirs, who united with each other after the destruction of the kingdom of Casan. Statute labour is exacted from them by the Russians, but they are exempt from taxes. Tephaires.

The government of *Saratow* is made up of two distinct countries. The part on the east of the Wolga forms the extremity of the saline and sandy steppe which has been already mentioned in our account of Astrakhan. The quantity of salt taken every year from the lake of Elton is not less than five millions of *pouds*.[i] The western part of the government differs little from the other regions in central Russia; it produces rye and tobacco, but is ill adapted for the vine. The desert appearance of the country along the Wolga has been changed by the industrious colonists from Germany; the number of these inhabitants is not fewer than 110,000, and the most of them belong to the reformed church. Government of Saratow. German colonies.

The town of *Saratow* on the Wolga is a place of trade; the salt of lake Elton is carried thither, but the population does not exceed 7000 souls. Sarepta or the settlement of the Moravian brothers, is a cheerful town, all the inhabitants are artisans or shopkeepers; they have manufactories of velvet cotton and linen, many of them are employed in weaving stockings, making hats, dressing leather and preparing tobacco. Several Tartar tribes are supplied with all their utensils and articles of household furniture from the town of Sarepta. Royal manufactories have been established at *Ista*, its tapestry is sent to Petersburg, and the population is rapidly increasing.[k] Towns.

[h] Klaproth, Asia polyglotta. [i] Two hundred millions of pounds.

[k] Notes sur la statistique du gouvernement de Saratow dans Hermann. Journal de Statistique, Premiere partie, t. I. p. 72, 250.

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The government of Simbirsk may be compared to the last, but the climate is colder, the vine disappears and the arbute does not ripen; still it is fertile in grain and pasture. The more equable temperature is favourable to the health of the people, the inhabitants are not so widely scattered, they have made greater advances in civilization. Grain and fruits are exported, a great quantity of wheat is raised, and extensive orchards form thick woods in the neighbourhood of the villages.[1]

Towns.

Simbirsk, which is peopled by 15,000 souls, and Sysran with a population of 9000, are the largest towns in the government. The Kasimof Tartars sell at *Samara* the lamb skins which they purchase from the Kirguis, and which are much valued by the Russians. An ancient *tumulus* is situated near the town; according to tradition, it contains the ashes of a very powerful Tartar monarch, but his name is now forgotten. The hill or tumulus is called *Zarew-Kurgan*, and large serpents, some of them six feet in length, are frequently seen among the old trees that grow on its summit. Many reptiles of the same kind appear to have congregated in the royal tombs.

Zarew-Kurgan.

The angle which the Wolga forms at Samara, marks the southern limit of the Uralian and the commencement of the Caspian climate. Excessive heat is seldom felt, the succession of the seasons becomes regular, and plants are in blossom before the middle of April; the fields are then covered with the Siberian pasque-flower, and the wild tulip abounds in the woods.

Government of Kasan.

The Kama enters the Wolga in the government of Kasan, and the extensive plains near the confluence of the two rivers are fruitful in rye, barley, buck-wheat and lint. The forests on the south and west of the Wolga, consist mostly of oaks, but the opposite banks are planted with pines and beech trees. The lint crops are sometimes destroyed by the severity of the weather, and the fruits in the

[1] Description of the government of Sembirsk, in the Statistical Journal of Russia, 3d year. Vol. II. p. 103.

orchards are of a very ordinary quality. The climate resembles that of northern Russia, not in the excess but rather in the duration of the cold, in the keen air of spring, and in the frequent recurrence of morning frosts.

Town of Kasan.

Kasan,[m] *Kosan* and *Osan* are the different names of a town of 50,000 inhabitants, and one of the most important in the Russian empire. Its Tartar kremlin, its fifty churches and eleven convents are placed on a number of hills, on which the greater part of the town is built. The meadows that surround it on three sides are inundated in spring by the *Wolga*, and it then appears like an island on a lake. The houses are built of wood, the streets are paved with timber, and the stranger observes all the defects of the Russian towns. But Kasan is distinguished by the industry of its inhabitants, and the Russian and Tartar townsmen are enriched by their commerce with Siberia, and by their trade in Russian and Morocco leather. The university does all it can to promote the diffusion of knowledge; several of its members have been sent on scientific expeditions into the interior. A seminary for the education of missionaries and priests is established in the convent of Silandovo, and the children of the Tartars, Tcheremisses and Mordvines resort to it. Kasan was the ancient capital of a Tartar kingdom, which was taken by the Russians in *1552*; the wealthy repair to it in winter, and they rival the nobles of Moscow in the luxury of the table, and in sumptuous entertainments.[n] The other towns in the government, such as *Kosmodemiansk* and *Tcheboksary*, each of which contains 5000 souls, are not of much importance. Busching tells us that the extensive ruins of *Briaikhimova* or *Bolgari*, the ancient metropolis of Great Bulgaria, are situated in the province. Arabic and Armenian inscriptions, pieces of money, and many remains of ancient splendour have excited the curiosity of travellers.[o]

[m] Kasan is a Tartar word; it signifies a chauldron.

[n] Erdmann's Beitræge.

[o] Lepekhin, Voyage, first part. Frœhn, Narrative of Ibn-Foslan.

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Manners of the people. Tchouvasches.

The three governments that have been last mentioned, are inhabited by different people, who are not of Russian origin. The *Tchouvasches*, whom Bremner denominates the *Souiaski*,[p] differ from the other inhabitants by their black hair, the thin beard, which descends to a point under the chin, their prominent cheek bones, sunk eyes, and the stupid expression of the Calmucks.[q] Their language contains but few Finnic words, it is equally different from the Tartar, and is probably a dialect of the ancient Hunnic.

Mythology.

It is a remarkable fact in the mythological history of the tribe, that *Tor* or *Tora*, the supreme divinity, was known by the same name to the Scandinavians, and worshipped as the god of thunder. This is not a solitary instance, the secondary deities of the Tchouvasches were called *Borodon*, a name that corresponds with Bora in the Edda. The malevolent principle, the wicked god, the enemy of Thor, is termed *Seita*, but it has been incorrectly affirmed that Seita was the same as the Satan of eastern nations, for the word signifies in Scandinavian a sorcerer or wizard; and it is expressly said in the Edda, that Thor in his journey through the east slew the magicians, or, in other words, erected the Wodinic worship on the magical altars of the Finns. The *Ividies* were the Dryads of the Scandinavians, and the Tchouvasches worshipped their rural divinities, the beings that roamed among the trees or *ivos*. The same tribe adored the sun, and sacrificed a white horse during the festival of the great luminary. They surrounded the tombs of their parents with pillars, and offered annual victims to their manes. The *ierik* was a bunch of fifteen rose branches, it was suspended in the huts or *kils*, and worshipped as an idol. The priests were called *iomma*, a word that recalls the Finnic name of the supreme power, and an Eddaic surname of the horses of the sun. It is indeed a pity that a people whose rites were so much connected with those of other nations,

[p] Brunner, Epit. Mosis Armeni, p. 107.
[q] Muller, Mémoires pour l'Histoire Russe.

was not earlier observed by men versed in the history of ancient worships. The civil customs of the Tchouvasches were not different from those of barbarous tribes; the father sold his daughter, and she became the slave of her husband or purchaser; all the neighbours of the different proprietors assisted them in collecting the harvest, and partook of a feast at the end of their labour, the same fraternal assistance and other good offices were performed gratuitously to widows and orphans.

The *Tchèremisses* inhabit the governments of Simbirsk, Kasan, Wiatka and Nischneigorod, and although they resemble the Tchouvasches in the form of their features, they are a stronger and finer race of men. Their dialect is more nearly allied to the Finnic, they call themselves *Mari* or men, and distinguish the Tchouvasches by the compound name of *Kurk-Mari*, or mountaineers. Like the Mordvines, they are indigenous to the country, and their names are in all probability derived from rivers and mountains. The Russians were encouraged and assisted by the Tcheremisses in the conquest of Kasan, but many of the latter continued faithful to the Mahometan worship. The privilege of having four wives at the same time is not abolished, and heathen prayers to the family idol precede the marriage ceremony of those who have embraced Christianity. The Pagans amongst them adore the Finnic divinity *Iouma* and his wife *Ioumanava*, and conciliate their favour by cakes or other offerings. *Aquebarem* or the god of the harvest is devoutly worshipped, and his aid is implored in one of the three great festivals. A sorrel horse is sacrificed in the festival of the spring, and a white horse is slain on the grave of a rich man by a *moukschan* or magician.[q] Some trees are cut in thick woods, the ground is levelled and the place is thus changed into a *keremet* or sanctuary. The country is not so large as it once was, a great

Mythology.

[q] Muller, Mémoires sur l'Histoire de Russie, III. p. 332, 345, 382, 410. Strahlenberg, p. 346.

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part of it is inhabited by Russians; and the Teheremisses live no longer as hunters or wandering shepherds, but are now devoted to agriculture, many are good husbandmen, they possess much corn and numerous flocks.

Manners and customs.

The men have adopted the costume of the Russian peasants, but they still shave their heads; and the women retain their large cylindrical bonnets, which are covered with fringes, glass beads, or pieces of money. Their dress in summer is very light, it consists of a single shift above a pair of trowsers, but the baubles and bells, of which the fair Tcheremisses are so fond, announce their approach at a great distance. An historian maintains incorrectly that the Tcheremisses have no calendar, for M. Pallas has shown that their year commences in the month of March.[r] None of them can write, and the memory of past events is preserved by certain marks cut on a piece of wood; still, it is said, they possessed formerly written books, which no one could understand, and which were in later times devoured by the *Great Cow*.

Mordvines.

Although the *Mordvines* or *Morduates* are more numerous in Pensa and Nischneigorod than in the governments on the eastern Wolga, they cannot be considered apart from the two people last mentioned. They have mingled with the Russians, but they are sprung from the Finns, and consist at present of three classes, the *Mokschanis*, *Erzanis* and *Karatai*. The last is the least populous of the three, and the two first, it was believed, spoke dialects so widely different, that persons of either tribe could hardly understand each other, an assertion which is completely refuted in the valuable tables of M. Klaproth, yet that distinguished scholar included the Erzanis only in the tribe of the Mordvines. Their name has been derived from *Ertem*, a province of the Patzinakites, and also from *erdæ*, an Hungarian word, which signifies a forest. The only difference between the Erzanians and Mokschani consists in the comparatively barbarous state of the for-

[r] Lévesque, Histoire de Russie, VII. 366. Pallas, Voyage, VII. p. 28.

mer; fewer amongst them have embraced Christianity, all are more impatient of restraint, and less accustomed to a settled life. The Mordvines are probably the descendants of the *Mordens*, who, according to Jornandes, were the vassals of the Goths under Hermanaric.[s] They once occupied a wider country, and the town of Muron on the Oka, says Nestor, was the residence of their princes. They have neither, adds M. Pallas, temples nor idols, and *schamanism*[t] in its simplest form is the religion of these wandering tribes. They adore a supreme and invisible being, but their magicians or *schamans* can conciliate his favour and disarm his wrath.[u] We are inclined to place more confidence in the account of M. Lepekhin, who declares they worship the sun, and offer sacrifices at the new moon.[x]

The Tartars or, according to the more correct denomination of M. Klaproth, the *Turks* of Kasan enjoy in a greater degree the blessings of civilization. Industrious, sober and generous, the conquered people are superior far to the Russian conquerors. Their physiognomy is very different, though not a tall race of men, they may be easily distinguished from the Russians by their long beards, commanding features, dark and piercing eyes. Strict observers of religious ordinances, abstaining from wine and whatever is not sanctioned in the Koran, they are nevertheless tolerant, hospitable and kind to Christians. Their women appear before strangers, and M. Erdmann was able to describe, for he had seen a Tartar marriage. The dress of the men resembles that of eastern nations, but it is necessarily modified by the nature of the climate. The women adorn themselves with pearls and jewellery, and their costume varies according to fashion. The corruption

The Tartars of Kasan.

[s] They are called *Mordeas* and *Mordensimmis*, but the termination *simmis* is the Slavonic word for country.

[t] Schamanism is the religion of the schamans or the Tartar priests and magicians.

[u] Pallas, Voyage, 1. p. 91—123.

[x] Lepekhin's Journal, 1. p. 100. German translation.

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inseparable from great cities is unknown, the men are honest and the women are chaste. A family is a patriarchal monarchy, of which the husband is king. Polygamy is permitted by the laws, but few of the Tartars have more than one wife, a natural consequence of civilization. It sometimes happens, however, when the mistress of the house is old, that her lord takes a young bride, who shares his bed, still the first wife reigns, and the second claims no share of the domestic honours. These Tartars speak the Turkish or their native language very purely, and many of them are well acquainted with the Russian and Bucharo-Persian. Their commercial activity, numerous schools and different institutions place them far above the other inhabitants.

Government of Wiatka.

The two large governments of Wiatka and Perm are the coldest, highest and most northern, but not the most sterile portion of the central Uralian region. A large plain of argillaceous land in the first government, slopes gently from the north-east to the south-west, and its inequalities are mostly occasioned by the course of rivers. The heights near Sarapul and Ielabula contain copper ore and beds of schistous sandstone. The *wolgas* or carrying stations between the sources of the Kama and the Wiatka on one side, and the Dwina and Petschora on the other, form an extensive plain, which rises imperceptibly and reaches the height of 620 feet above the banks of the Wolga in the neighbourhood of Kasan, or of 120 feet above the sea; an elevation equal to a fourth part of the ordinary altitude of the Ural mountains. Rye, barley, lint and hemp thrive in the southern districts, but the country near the sources of the two rivers is not so productive, the climate is too severe, and in many seasons the inhabitants are compelled to mix acorns or the bark of the mountain-ash and fir tree with their flour. The population throughout the government of Wiatka amounts to 1,300,000, but many individuals emigrate for a time, and serve in the boats that ply on the Wolga.

Ridge.

Towns.

Wiatko, a place of trade, is peopled by 12,000 persons,

and its grain and other agricultural produce are conveyed by the Dwina to Archangel. The inhabitants of *Sarapul* on the Kama send their vessels to Astrakan, and exchange their commodities with the Samoyedes on the Petchora. Sarapul was built by Finnic or Tartar tribes, and Wiaitko was first known by the Russian name of *Chlinow* or *Klinof*. *Slobdosk* is peopled by 5000 souls, and carries on a great trade in iron and copper. The ruins of many ancient Finnic towns are situated in the same province, and although the remains of the one near *Schestakow* are the most extensive, they are less remarkable than those of *Tschartova-Gorodeschte* or the Devil's town in the district of Ielabuga.

Wotiaikes.

The Wotiaikes are a Finnic tribe and one which is not much mixed with foreigners. They are a weak and ugly race of men, most of them have red or yellow hair and little or no beard. We might be apt from their physiognomy to consider them a branch of the Votes, who formerly inhabited the neighbouring country on the west, which was subject to the republick of Novgorod. Some Tcheremissan, Wogul and even Gothic[y] words have been introduced into their dialect, in other respects it is almost the same as the Permian. The people call themselves *Oudi* or *Oud-Murt*, and the Tartars distinguish them by the name of *Ari*.[z] Their territory commences at the Tanyp, a feeder of the Bielaia, in the government of Orenburg, and the opposite frontiers are not far from Sarapul. It thus includes *Kam-Kossip* or the districts between the lower Kama and the Wiaitka, and extends on the upper banks of the last river to the country near Orlow, and the sources of the Kama in the vicinity of Kai. The town of *Arsk* in Kasan, was once inhabited by princes of the same nation; it was likewise the residence of nobles, at present it is peopled by villagers. The peaceable Wotiaikes earn a subsistence by tilling the ground and by rearing bees; their industrious

Mode of life.

[y] *Ar*, a year; *suser*, an eldest sister; *schoudi*, the sun.

[z] The first of these names signifies hospitable, the second remote. Klaproth, Asia Polyglotta, p. 185.

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wives prepare coarse cloth, felt, hides and whatever is necessary for the dress of their families. Some of the men work as wrights or turners, and make use of a particular varnish, which not only imparts a bright lustre, but hardens and improves the quality of the wood. Few have more than two wives, and as every girl is sold, he who cannot afford to buy his bride, tries to carry her off. If the fair one consents or yields to the wishes of her lover, she may be purchased at a very cheap rate; but if she refuses, or if the adventurous youth is caught by her parents, he receives many stripes, and the commercial value of the maiden is nowise impaired.

Names of divinities.

The names of their divinities are different from those of the other Finnic nations. The supreme being is called *In-Mar* or the Man in the Heavens,[a] his mother is *Mouma-Kaltsina* or the universal principle of fecundity, and his wife is *Chounda-Mouma* or the mother of the sun, the stars and the inferior gods. Their festivals, sacrifices, priests and holy places differ little from those of the Wolgaic Finns, but other parts of their superstition are more connected with the creed of the Calmucks and the Lamas. While the Tchouvasches change the wicked after death into so many skeletons that roam in a frozen desert, the Wotiaikes place them in caldrons of burning pitch.[b] The same barbarians keep their feasts every year on the tombs of their forefathers, and the stomach, blood and entrails of the victims are reserved for the infernal gods.

Government of Permia or Perm.

The government of Perm is partly situated in Asia, the European portion includes the countries watered by the higher Kama, but the lofty plains in the government of Wiatka extend to Tcherdyn, Solikamsk and Krasno-Ufimsk. The same line may be considered the limit of what has been called the promontories of the Uralian

[a] From *in* or *ien*, the heavens, and *mar* or *murt*, man.

[b] Georgi, Nations Russes, p. 43, 59.

mountains, most of which form sloping plains or detached hills. Calcareous rocks of the second formation are found among beds of sandstone, argil and marl. The numerous caverns abound in stalactites, and the one near Koungour is divided into four large apartments. The sinking of the ground is frequently caused by subterranean waters, which undermine the marshy land, and the beds of many small lakes are thus formed. The first or western chains in the Ural range consist of limestone, and in a few places that substance is mixed with petrifactions. Between these chains and the granite heights or summits of the range, are metalliferous mountains composed of hornblende rocks, argillaceous schistus, gneiss and lamellated granite. It is from these mountains that the rich ore is extracted, which furnishes constant employment for 50,000 workmen, and a greater supply of iron than is necessary for the whole Russian empire. Copper is not so abundant, but the quantity obtained is not less than 125,000 *pouds*, and the gold washings which are situated in the Asiatic part of the government, have become much more productive of late years.[c] All the salt marshes lie in the vicinity of the limestone and gypsum hills, and in the beds of the lakes are observed strata of shells, and the fossil remains of elephants and other animals.[d] The number of workmen who live by exporting salt amounts to 15,000.

Western Uralian mountains.

Ores.

The extent of the forests is to that of the ground in cultivation as seventeen to one, and the climate, which is cold and humid by reason of the latitude, is rendered more so by thick shades, numerous springs and masses of eternal snow or ice collected in caverns and ravines. The rivers near Solikamsk are frozen about the end of October or beginning of November, and sledges or skates are used six months in the year. The hills in the south of the government are, on the contrary, exposed to the burning winds from the Caspian steppes. Vegetation varies greatly,

Climate.

Vegetation.

[c] Nouv. Ann. des Voyages, Novembre 1825.

[d] *Mémoire sur les Productions Naturelles de Perm, dans la Description Economique, &c. de M. de Moderach.*

BOOK CV. but the birch is the most common tree in the forests on the high country, and next to it are the pine and different kinds of fir; the larch and cedar of Siberia are of rare occurrence. The mountain-ash, the lime, the maple and the sorb are seen in the plains and fruitful districts. Corn does not always ripen in the northern part of the province, and the inhabitants consume, in addition to bread, a great quantity of spirits distilled from grain. As we descend southwards, we observe different fruit trees, and the melon and the arbute grow on the Asiatic side of the Urals.

Towns. The industry of the government is concentrated in the *sawodes* or villages of the mines, in the forges and foundries. The towns, on the other hand, are principally inhabited by merchants, not by the working classes, and most of them are neither large nor populous.[e] Perm, the capital, does not contain more than 6000 inhabitants, and *Kangari*, which boasts of its tan-pits and soap works is only peopled by 7000. A great trade in salt is carried on in the ancient town of Solikamsk, but its population does not amount to 5000 souls. The large burgh or *Slabode* of *Nischnei-Neviansk*[f] is inhabited by 1200 *Roskolniki* or members of the ancient Greek church, and is a place of some importance from its trade and manufactures, but it ought to have been mentioned in our description of Asia, for, according to the limits to which we adhere, it is situated in that continent.

Permians and Siriaines. The Permians and Siriaines are two tribes of the same people, their customs, manners and dialect are not different. The former reside on the banks of the Kama, the second inhabit the countries towards the north, and are scattered on the Witchegda and the Mezen in the governments of Wologda and Archangel. Both call themselves *Komi-Murt* or the people of the country. The Permians are sometimes distinguished by the name of *Sudai*, but at present there is little difference between them and the Rus-

[e] Hermann's Mémoires de Statistique, III. p. 55.

[f] The adjective *Nischnei*, which is prefixed to the names of several Russian town, signifies lower.

sians, and the greater number speak the language of that people. Their mythology and history are little known, the one and the other have been imperfectly handed down by oral tradition. It has been proved by some documents and records, exclusively of the numerous ruins, that Permia or Perm was once a kingdom, which comprehended perhaps all the countries on the White Sea, the Urals and the Obi. It is uncertain whether that Finnic monarchy or *Tchordskoy-Tzarstwo*, as it is termed by Russian antiquaries, existed in the time of Augustus, and ended in the fourth and fifth centuries after the invasion of the Huns, or whether the monuments of ancient splendour and industry are merely the remains of the Biarmian kingdom, which was known to the Scandinavians during the middle ages, visited by Persians and Arabians, and finally subdued by the Russians in 1472. The last supposition is, in our opinion, very probable, but we do not mean to deny the anterior existence of a Finnic, particularly a Hungarian or Magiar kingdom, which might have been destroyed after the migration of its most powerful tribes to central Russia and the banks of the Danube. The true history of the country begins in the time of St. Stephen, the apostle of the Permians, who invented an alphabet in 1375. The inventor wrote several books in the new characters, converted an immense number of heathens, and established the first metropolitan see in Perm, near the convent of *Oust-Wymsk*. It is melancholy to add that the missionary was aided in the work of conversion by the arms of barbarians, and the torch of incendiaries. His labours were rendered easy by a Russian army, and the frightened heathens with their children and idols fled for safety to the rocks of the Woguls and the frozen marshes of the Samoyedes. St. Stephen died in 1396, and a short time afterwards his life was written by the monk Epiphanes, a work of which a small part only is now extant. The writings of the Saint were lost by the negligence of the priests, and his alphabet, it is said, resembled the one invented by Cyril,

Ancient monarchy of the Tchoudes.

Alphabet.

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but none of the characters are at present known.[g] M. de Moderach discovered some ancient records in the archives of Tcherdyn, and the names of fourteen princes and princesses who ruled over *Great Permia* are mentioned in these documents. All of them were Christians, and when the male dynasty became extinct, the succession passed to females. Tcherdyn, says M. de Moderach, is built on the site of Great Perm, but, according to other authors, it is situated on the north-west of that town, at the confluence of the Witchegda and the Wym.

Superstition.

Some monuments of an ancient religion, once common to all the Finnic nations, still remain in the forests of Permia. Different *keremets* or consecrated enclosures have been lately examined, metallic idols have been found and destroyed. Herberstein mentions a gold statue, which was probably an object of Permian superstition; it represented an old woman with a child in her arms, the whole was surrounded with tubes and spiracles, and the wind in passing through them produced harmonious sounds.[h] The spot on which the temple of the *Solataia-Baba* stood, is now unknown, but it is supposed to have been erected on the north-east of Tcherdyn, near a feeder of the Sosva.

[g] Klaproth, Asia Polyglotta, p. 188.

[h] Adelung's Life of Herberstein, p. 385.

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EUROPE.

European Russia. Third Section. Northern Russia. Countries on the White Sea.

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Aspect of the country.

THE country from the Ural mountains to the shore of the White Sea is cold and unfruitful; the climate is of such a nature that the industry of man can hardly contend against the elements, and the scanty produce of his labour enables him merely to lengthen out a painful and sometimes precarious existence. The vivifying principle of heat is diminished, corn withers, and the marshy meadows are covered with rushes and mosses. Trees disappear on the sterile plains, the plants are stunted, and the whole of vegetable nature proclaims the vicinity of the pole. The cold soil is not fructified by the solar rays in the long days of summer; but in this almost uninhabitable region man has established his ministerial arrangements and political divisions. The governments of *Wologda*, *Archangel* and *Olonetz* make up the countries which we are about to describe; still we shall be guided rather by the limits that seas and rivers afford us, than by such as are of a conventional character. The provinces on the east and the south of the White Sea form what has been already termed *the maritime Uralian region*, those on the west may for the most part be included in the Laponic countries. The topographical details that are contained in the statistical ac-

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counts of Russia, may be naturally arranged under these two physical sections.[a]

Country on the east of the White sea.

The land on the east is an immense plain, which descends from the sources of the Petchora, the Mezen, Witchegda, Dwina and Onega to the shores of the White Sea. The low hills by which the course of the rivers is determined, are the only objects that vary the prospect. The sources of the Petchora and Witchegda are not more than 1200 feet above the level of the sea, those of the Mezen are about 600, and the greatest height of the Onega is less than 300. Some hills are situated in the southern part of the countries watered by these rivers; but few rocks are scattered in the northern districts, which consist of vallies and marshes. The large plain is bounded on the east by the *Kammenoy-Poyas*, a chain connected with the Ural range, and probably a continuation of the primitive calcareous heights, in which the subterranean strata are not so deep as in the collateral chains. Its greatest elevation does not exceed 3600 feet, and its utmost breadth is supposed to be equal to ten versts. It descends and disappears near the sources of the Ousa.

Rivers.

The Petchora, the Mezen and the Dwina are the three great rivers in the country on the east of the White Sea. The first, though of no great celebrity, is not inferior to the Loire in the length of its course, but it flows through the most solitary deserts in the Russian empire. A hunter is rarely seen in the woods, a Samoyedan seldom brings his rein-deer to pasture on its banks. The Kammenoy-Poyas extends to a certain distance in a direction parallel to the course of the river, and its steep calcareous banks are broken by caverns and ravines.[b] It is enlarged by the Ousa, and passes after its junction through a very different country, where its low banks are surrounded by immense heaths. Few fish are found in its clear water, and

[a] See the tables of the physical sections in Europe.

[b] Petschora is the Russian word for a cavern; hence the name of the river. The convent of *Petschori* is situated in the government of Pleskow.

those in the Frozen sea are perhaps prevented from ascending its channel by two very salient promontories. The *Mezen* is nowise remarkable, and the country which it waters, contains but few objects likely to attract the attention of the physical geographer. The *Double Dwina* is formed near *Veliki-Oust-Ioug*, by the junction of the *Ioug* and the *Suchona* or the outlet of the lake *Kouban*. It is there that the Dwina is known by its name, but it does not become a large river before it reaches the confluence of the Witchegda, which flows from the east, in a direction opposite to the Suchona. It is navigable, and abounds in fish; its breadth is about 200 yards, and the ice remains on it from the end of November to the beginning of April. The *Onega* does not issue from the lake Onega, but from several others, which, although in the neighbourhood, are not connected with it. The *Vaga* a western feeder of the Dwina, and the *Vig* and *Sig*, which fall into the White sea, are still distinguished by their Scandinavian names.[e]

Dwina.

The temperature varies little in different districts, for all of them are exposed to the north wind. The humid forests on the south, and a frozen sea on the north render the winters long and severe. The heat is at intervals oppressive during the long days of summer, but so sudden is the transition produced by a northern breeze, that the workmen sometimes appear in the same hour with their light dresses and the thick furs of Siberia. The mornings in June are generally frosty, and they are always so in the month of September. Ice may be constantly found beyond the 67th parallel at the depth of a few feet below the ground. But the greatest degree of cold has been observed in Wologda and Oustioug; it is uncertain, at all events it has not been proved by thermometrical observations, that the temperature diminishes in more northern latitudes.

Climate.

[e] *Schlœning's* Origin of the Norwegians, p. 105. Edda, Grimmis-Mal, Str. 27, 28, 29.

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Soil and productions.

The whole region may be divided into forests, heaths and rocks, for the cultivated land and the natural meadows occupy so small an extent that they need not be taken into account. The forests in the three governments are very large; the pine, the fir and the larch predominate, and the war ships at Archangel are made of the last tree. The inhabitants export planks, staves and tar. The soil is marshy and ill adapted for agriculture; still a small quantity of barley is sown, and in some years reaped. The potatoes are much below the ordinary size, and all the grain and farinaceous plants are inadequate to the consumption of a scanty population. The deficiency is supplied by lichens, by the roots of the *Calla palustris*, and the ground bark of the fir. Rye succeeds sometimes near Wologda and Olonetz, but it is not unfrequently destroyed by a single night's frost.

Horses and Oxen.

The horses are strong and the oxen are well-shaped, but the sheep is not a valuable animal, the mutton in the country is hardly eatable, and the wool, which is of an inferior sort, is only used in making *wadmal* or a coarse cloth worn by the peasantry.

Venison, grouse, and different kinds of game are exported from Wologda; among the other commercial articles may be mentioned *rischikes* or a species of small mushroom which is considered a great delicacy by the Russians; a bottle of them is sold for two roubles. Traces of metal have been observed, but it is nowhere found in great quantities. The salt pits at *Sol-Wytchegotskai*, *Segora*, and more particularly in the neighbourhood of *Totma*, on the Kouda and Lesenga, are productive. The banks of the Wym are covered with petrified shells, and the bones of elephants are occasionally found on the Petchora.

Shrubs.

The fruit-bearing shrubs are the most valuable gifts, which nature has bestowed on the wretched inhabitants of these bleak regions. The *moroschka* or Norwegian *chamæmorus* is a powerful anti-scorbutic, and of an agreeable taste. The red and black whortleberry, wild cherries, gooseberries and different fruits of the same sort

are very common. The vegetables which are cultivated are radishes, turnips, white cabbage, onions and garlic.

Archangel.

Archangel or *Gorod-Archangelskoi*, the convent of the saint and archangel Michael is the most commercial town in these provinces. It is situated on the banks of the Dwina, at the distance of ninety versts from the White sea, and according to a late measurement, it is about three miles and half in length, and less than two in breadth. The population consists of 15,000 souls; yet all the houses, and there are nineteen hundred, all the churches, eleven of which are reserved for the Græco-Russians, and one for the calvinists, are built of wood, in short, the commercial hall is the only brick building in the city. The English carried on a lucrative trade in that part of Russia during the 16th century, before that time these shores were never visited by trading nations. The navigation of the White sea may therefore be said to have been discovered by British traders about the year *1553*. The Dutch and Hamburghers followed the example of the English, and the town of Archangel was built in 1584, near the convent of the holy Michael. It was for a long time the only port in Russia, but its commerce was nearly destroyed when Peter the First made the town that bears his name, the principal harbour of the empire. Before the decree of the czar was announced, Archangel was the great mart of the goods that passed into Siberia, and from the last country into Europe. Several articles of exportation are still sent thither from different parts of European Russia by Wologda and Oustioug-Weliki; and the foreign vessels which arrive at Archangel receive in exchange grain, lint, fish oil, wood, tar, tallow, wax, linen, iron bars and edder down. The value of the articles exported amounts to six millions of roubles, and the town is also the capital of a naval station. As there are neither husbandmen nor flocks in the neighbourhood, the ordinary articles of food are brought from a distance. Cod and ling may be easily caught, and the people consume a great quantity of fish. Several vessels are employed every

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Fisheries.

year in fishing sea cows near Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla, and in the herring fisheries on the White sea; many of the fishermen winter at Spitzbergen. Bacstrom, a Dutch navigator, who visited the Russians in their winter quarters, says they were well provided with every thing. Their houses or cottages were made of wood, they lived by hunting, and killed plenty of white bears, blue foxes and rein deer. Such were their amusements during the dreary winters, and in summer they were more profitably employed in fishing and shooting eider-ducks. No trees grow on the islands of Spitzbergen, and the fishermen might perish from cold if trees were not thrown on the coasts; but a quantity is, at cient for building a house is often found on the shores. The exercise which the Russian hunters take is the best preventive against many maladies. Storch affirms that strong abstain from spirituous liquors, but his assertion is contradicted by the testimony of Bracstom. Vapour baths are resorted to as a remedy against scurvy, the coasts of which covered with plants and shrubs, which are salutary. The same disease, and the fishermen are generally provided with a certain quantity of *moroschka*. The heated blood of the rein deer is given to invalids, an antidote which has been borrowed from the Samoyedes.

Wologda and Oustioug-Weliki.

Two other towns, Wologda and Oustioug-Weliki, may be shortly described. The first is peopled by 14,000 inhabitants, who are as industrious as any in the Russian empire; they have manufactories of silk, cloth and linen, porcelain, glass, crystal and mineral dye; many of the people are employed in dressing leather, and others are occupied in making paper, sealing wax, oil, tallow and turpentine. The industry of the ancient Novgorod is now transferred to Wologda; its commerce is very important, all the productions of the province, all the manufactures which have been enumerated are sent from it to Archangel and Siberia; whatever is exported from Petersburgh to Perm, Wiatka or Siberia passes through the same place. The different

articles which are exported to the port of Archangel from the interior, are all conveyed by the Wologda, the Suchona and the Dwina. It is the mart of the Siberian furs, of the teas and nankeens of Kiachta, its merchants travel into Siberia, and have their agents in China. Oustioug-Weliki, a town of 12,000 souls, is peopled by a colony from Wologda, it is situated on the Suchona, and on the great road between Archangel and Siberia, consequently the merchandise destined for that country is brought to Oustioug from Wologda, Petersburgh and Archangel. The inhabitants do not live solely by exporting goods, many of them make enamel and different kinds of jewellery, and there are soap, candle and tallow works in the town. The merchants of the same place retain the simplicity of ancient customs, brothers, nephews, and cousins reside together in the same establishment, some superintend the workmen, or sell the different goods, others travel to Petersburgh, Tobolsk or Irkutsk, and are deputed with full powers from the common house. These travellers are called *gosti* or guests, and they enjoy certain privileges in the different places that they visit. Totma contains 3000 inhabitants, and carries on a trade with Siberia. The other towns are insignificant, but their topography may serve to illustrate some phenomena worthy of notice. Thus the vegetation of the lime ceases near Nikolsk, the larch is not seen beyond *Jarensk*, and the last nut tree flourishes in the neighbourhood of *Olischew*, about 58° 30′, north latitude. A solitary and sheltered oak grows near the convent of Preluk, at no great distance from Wologda. *Oustsysolsk*, a burgh where many fairs are held, is situated in a country of which the *pinus cembra* is almost the only plant, hence the climate is not widely different from that near the line of perpetual snow.[d] Timber is exported from Onega in the government of

Manners of the Inhabitants.

Other towns.

[d] Mémoires Statistiques sur Wologda, in the Nouvelles Ephémérides geogr. XII. p. 15. See Storch, Materialen, I. p. 305.

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Archangel. *Kholmogory*, the ancient metropolis of the country on the Dwina, appears to be the same as the *Holmgard* of the Icelanders, it was once the capital of a Scandinavian state, it is built on an island or *holm* on the river. *Mezen* is the chief town of a very large department, part of which is called *Udoria*. The frontiers of *Iougoria* lie on the east of the Uralian mountains, and *Lucomoria* is a general name for the maritime plain of *Obdoria*, or the country near the mouths of the Obi. Many caverns are observed in the desert regions on the Petchora, and the natural entrances to most of them are cut or altered so as to admit of doors, a fact which seems to prove that they were at one time used for the dwellings of men. It is said that old caldrons and the remains of coarse household furniture, nay more, that human bones have been taken from some of them. According to the common tradition of the Samoyedes, the ancient inhabitants of their country were of gigantic size, and perished by the plague.[e] The popular notion coincides remarkably with the description of the Iotes in the Eddaic poems, for that people are frequently called *Iettes* or giants, and often compared or confounded with the *Rises*, *Thuses* and other barbarians of lofty stature and fierce manners. *Iotun-Heim* or the country of the Iotes is generally marked, as M. Schiæning has shown, on the east and north-east of Scandinavia. All the Iotes were supposed to reside in caverns, and each man, it is affirmed, had a *large caldron*. Their dialect was little different from others in Scandinavia, and their religious traditions were more ancient than the worship of Wodin. The name of *Thor* or *Thorum*, by which the Samoyedes designate the supreme being, is no proof against the hypothesis; for although it be allowed that the Iotes were the enemies of Thor, other branches of the Scandinavians, the conquerors and successors of that-

Udoria, &c.

Iotun-Heim.

[e] Klaproth, Asia Polyglotta.

people, might have disseminated the religion of Wodin's son among the vassal tribes.

Samoyedes, their name.

The Samoyedes are *the men who eat each other;* such at least is the meaning of the Russian word, and it has the same signification in Polish. It is, indeed, a matter of wonder that such a name has been applied to an innocent race of men, who live on the flesh of their rein deer, and who at most deserve the epithet of *Syroiedzi* or eaters of raw food, a term by which they are occasionally styled in official documents. As it is vain to suppose the meaning of the word different, we must conclude that they were called Samoyedes or *anthropophagi* by the inhabitants of more southern countries, whose prejudices against certain tribes were by no means uncommon. The *Melanchlæni*, *Cimmerians* and the *Iotes* themselves may be cited by way of example; some were believed by the Greeks, and others by the Wodinian Scandinavians, to be inhospitable, fierce and addicted to bloodshed. The same erroneous notions concerning ancient tribes may have passed to their successors, and the harmless Samoyedes may have thus been classed among cannibals. It is now generally admitted that the Samoyedes form a distinct race, which is divided into several tribes, and scattered from the sources of the Ienissei to the Frozen ocean, and along the shores of that sea from the Anabara on the east, to the Mezen on the west.[f] The most southern tribe is that of the *Ourongkhai* or *Soyotes*, who are subject to the Chinese, and reside on the Saganian mountains. They are evidently the same as the *Orangheys* of Rubruquis, whom he commends for their dexterity in skating and pursuing their game on the ice. The continuation of the Samoyedan tribes is interrupted near the central banks of the Ienissei, but as many as inhabit Europe, call themselves *Ninetz* and *Chasowo*, two words, which signify men. They are divided into several branches, and the *Wanoitai* on the Petchora, the Ousa, the Korotaicha and the Kara, are the most numerous. The country on

Tribes of the Samoyedes.

[f] Klaproth, Asia Polyglotta.

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the east of the Petchora is called by the same people, the *Arka-Ira* or Great Land. Much uncertainty prevails concerning the number and subdivisions of the European Samoyedes.

Different animals. Produce of the country.

The principal wealth of the inhabitants consists in the number of their rein deer; some of them possess more than a thousand, and few have less than ten. The price of a rein deer varies from two to ten roubles. The hunters kill the animals that are found on the plains and the mountains, or bears, wolves, foxes, squirrels, ermines, martens and wild rein-deer. The different birds that frequent the marshes, are wild geese, ducks, swans, the *larus parasiticus* and the *hæmatopus ostrologus* or oyster catcher. The fisheries are confined to the rivers, at least those on the sea afford a scanty supply. The most valuable fish are the *salmo-migratorius*, the *salmo neleuco*, the *cyprinus rutilus* and several kinds of shad and perch. The frost continues to the middle of May, and the rivers are only open two or three months in the year. The Petchora is blocked with ice before the end of October, and the Ousa is frozen by the beginning of September, still its banks are covered with firs, birch trees, alders, willows, sorbs and brushwood. The barberry, the *moroschka* or *chamœmorus* and the red whortleberry grow near Pustosersk. It follows from the above statement, which is attested by the natives themselves, that their polar country is susceptible of great improvement.[g]

Physical character.

The European Samoyedes are for the most part about the middle size, few of them are very tall or of *gigantic stature*. They may be distinguished by their flat visage, small eyes, and sunk nose, the last feature is nearly on a level with the upper jaw. To complete the picture, we may add a long mouth, thin lips, large ears, black and shining hair, which falls in plaits over the shoulders. They have no beards, and are for the most part of a swarthy complexion. The women are marriageable at ten

g Interrogatoire des Samoyèdes. See the Mémoires Mensuels de l'Académie de Pétersbourg, Janvier, Février, Mars, 1787.

years of age, and cease to bear children after thirty. Polygamy is permitted, but few men have more than two wives, all the girls are purchased, a hundred or sometimes a hundred and fifty rein deer are given for a bride. The fair sex do not enjoy much freedom, and though strictly watched by their husbands, they give them little cause of jealousy. The Samoyedes are a very dirty people, a man rarely washes himself, unless threatened with diseases arising from excessive filth. Scurvy, we have learnt with surprise, is not a common complaint, and many, it is said, are carried off by fevers. A Samoyedan cannot resist the temptation of ardent spirits, and death is often the consequence of intoxication. The blood of the rein deer is warmed, and considered an agreeable and wholesome beverage, the flesh of the same animal, and raw fish are their principal articles of food. Hunting or fishing is the sole occupation of the people, and from their great practice, they are swift runners and dexterous bowmen. It is owing to the same cause that these savages can see and hear much better than more civilized men; a good eye and a quick ear are indispensable to the hunter, who subsists on game.

Dwellings.

The tents of the Samoyedes are of a pyramidical form, they are made of the branches and bark of trees, and covered with rein deer skins. The women can take down, or erect a tent in a few hours. Every part of domestick economy, all the labours of the household, and other burdens are imposed on the weaker sex; their religion too subjects them to grievous and extraordinary purifications.

Superstition.

The Samoyedans believe in two beings that regulate the affairs of men; the good divinity is not adored, for he is ready to diffuse his blessings without hearing the prayers of his creatures, the wicked is never worshipped, because he cannot be made to relent by the lamentations of the wretched; the immortality of the soul is a sort of metempsychosis. Although their creed is so simple, the priests possess considerable authority; the *kedesnicks* and *sadibeis* hold communion with the evil spirit, and are con-

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sulted whenever the calamities of an individual remind him of a hellish power. The same people have no laws, custom supersedes in some measure their necessity; thus a man rarely marries more than one individual of the same family. The tribute of furs exacted by the Russians is willingly paid, and it is the only acknowledgment of submission claimed by the czar.

Government of Olonetz.

The government of Olonetz extends on the south to the latitude of Petersburg, and on the north to the White sea, thus it separates the province of Archangel from the circle of Kola or Lapland.

Olonetz Hills.

The *Olonetz hills* are formed by granite rocks from 300 to 500 feet in height; they are the prominent parts of a granite ridge, which occupies apparently all the space between the White sea and the gulfs on the Baltic. The number of lakes in the government is supposed to be 1998, and the rocks by which the water is precipitated into the lakes Onega, Ladoga and the White sea, are all composed of granite. The same substance is covered with masses of trap, ophites and schistus. The gold veins of Woitz, which were first observed by a peasant,

Gold.

extend on a bed of gneiss that forms one of the superincumbent strata; no advantage is now derived from the discovery, although the gold is of a very bright colour, and contains comparatively little alloy. Specimens of copper ore have been collected in many parts of the country, but it exists nowhere in sufficient abundance to indemnify the labour of working it. Iron is more productive, and the quantity obtained annually from the government exceeds 200,000 *pouds*. Mineralogists have examined in an island on the lake of *Puch*, a stratum of schistus, which is impregnated with vitriol, and, from its decomposed state, not unlike chalk. Marble is exported to Petersburg from the quarries of Olonetz. The oak and the beech succeed rarely, but the fir and the larch grow to the height of a hundred feet in the circle of Kargapol.

Towns.

Petrosavodsk, the metropolis of the government, contains 3000 inhabitants, many of whom labour in the iron works and imperial founderies. *Kargapol*, ano-

ther small town possesses a flourishing trade, and *Olonetz* is not unworthy of notice, for it was there that Peter the Great first attempted to build a ship of war. The circle of *Powenetz* is noted for its good hemp, and many of its inhabitants are *Roscolniki* or Russians of the ancient Greek church. The monks in the different convents appear with long beards, and that appendage of which they boast, is said to be essential to their faith. Several large rivers flow in the department of eastern Kemi towards the western coast of the White sea; their water is coloured by the *sphagnum palustre* and other plants, and dashed in golden foam from the summits of steep granite rocks. The Laplander and his rein deer are seen in many extensive tracts, on which the trees are never lofty, and the crops always uncertain. Although under the same parallel as Ostrobothnia, the climate is as severe as in central Lapland. The population of the government consists chiefly of Carelian Finns, their language is mixed with the Russian, and a barbarous and irregular dialect is thus produced.[h]

Island of Solowetskoy.

A town and a convent have been built on the island of *Solowetskoy*, which is situated on the White sea, and belongs to the government of Archangel. The convent was visited by many pilgrims, and the town sustained a siege during four years against a body of Strelitzans. Large tablets of Muscovy talc are sent from the island to different parts of the empire.

Russian Lapland.

The circle of Kola and the northern part of eastern Kemi made up at one time Russian Lapland; but by later treaties, two extensive districts, all the *Lapmark* of western Kemi, and the greater part of the *Lapmark* of Torneo, have been ceded to Russia. Thus nearly two-thirds of the regions peopled by Laplanders are within the dominions of the emperor. We shall therefore give in this part of our work some account of that singular people and the coun-

[h] Campenhausen's Statistical and Geographical Essays. Storch's Journey round the lakes Ladoga and Onega, Materialim, I. p. 211.

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Mountains.

try they inhabit. Lapland is not intersected by Alps or very high mountains, as has been affirmed by a German geographer.[i] The whole region from Nordland onwards, is a table land crowned only on its western frontier with a mountainous chain that forms the extremity of the Scandinavian Alps, and descends from Sulitielma, of which the elevation is 6000 feet, to the heights of Norwegian Finmark, that are about 3600 on the continental coast, and nearly 4000 on some islands. The interior is intersected by ravines and vallies; the elevation of the highest plains may be about fifteen or sixteen hundred feet, but they uniformly descend towards the east and the south. The rocks and hills that rise from the table land are not lofty; they vary to the east of 18° longitude, from five to six hundred feet above their base, or from 2000 to 2400 above the level of the sea. These hills do not form a continuous chain, but a number of isolated groups, and at twenty leagues to the south of them, near the base of mount *Salvasvalo*, at the level of 1300 feet, the streams and rivers separate in different directions between the north sea and the Bothnian gulf, and between the gulfs of Alten and Torneo.[k] We conclude from the information afforded us by travellers, that the central ridge descends without interruption to the entrance of the White sea, and instead of a continuous chain, that part of the country consists of extensive marshes and sandy plains studded with rocks varying from 300 to 400 feet in height. The hills on the higher part of the table land are composed of granite and gneiss; such at least were those examined by M. de Buch on the banks of the Muonio. Silver is found on the *Three islands*, and on the *Bear's island*, near the eastern extremity of Russian Lapland, but their component parts are in other respects the same. M. de Buch observed during his excursion towards the gulf of Both-

[i] Ruhs, Sweden, p. 124.

[k] Section from Altengaard to Torneo. See the *Voyages en Laponie* by the Baron de Buch.

nia, a succession of calcareous and schistous rocks. The same substances abound in the country between the last gulf and that of Kandala; and although the land is furrowed with ravines, its elevation is inconsiderable. The whole region rests probably on a base of red *decomposable* granite, or as it is generally called by the natives, *rapakivi*.[l]

Metal. Metal is found in abundance throughout the greater part of western Lapland, and there are whole mountains of rich iron ore in the provinces still attached to Sweden. Traces of copper and silver have been discovered, but the indications disappear gradually as we approach the White sea. The marshy lands are impregnated with iron, but the want of hands, the scarcity of timber, and the great difficulty of conveying goods are insurmountable obstacles against working mines in the inland and eastern parts of the country. The natives rejoice that these treasures are suffered to remain in the earth, their rulers might otherwise compel them to labour; at all events, it is certain that the Laplander, who showed rich mines and metallic veins to the Russians, was considered a traitor by his countrymen. Rock crystal is a very common mineral, and the inhabitants sell it sometimes for amethysts and topazes.[m]

Rivers and lakes. The *Alten* or *Alata*, which traverses by a series of waterfalls the mountains in Finmark, is included in Norway, and the *Torneo* and *Muonio* mark the limits of Sweden. The Bothnian Kemi flows in the Russian provinces, and of all its imposing and terrific cataracts, the *Taival Koski*

[l] Wahlenberg, Topographie de la Laponie de Kemi. De Buch, Voyage, II. p. 238-277. We have collected the different words by which the Laplanders denote mountains, rivers and lakes. *Wara*, a mountain, *Tuoddar*, a mountainous chain covered with snow. *Kaisse*, an isolated summit. *Iagna* or *Iegna*, a glacier. *Tierno*, a well-wooded mountain. *Meto*, a round hill. *Korr*, a peak. *Pakte*, a rock. *Pello*, a plain. *Tyæsk*, a lake covered with *sphagnum* and other plants. *Jærfri*, a lake. *Jaure*, a marsh. *Faule*, a lake through which a river passes. *Ioki* or *Iok*, a river.

[m] Hermelin, Essai d'une histoire minérale de la Laponie.

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or *the fall of the heavens*, is the only one which the adventurous boatmen never attempt to cross. The *Tama*, which abounds in excellent salmon, forms to a certain extent the boundary between Norway and Russia, and surrounds on the east the maritime chain of Finmark. Small islands and rocks are scattered on the *Passe* or *holy stream*, the outlet of the great lake *Enara*. The *Tuloma* falls from a great height, before it enters the Russian town of Kola, but the course of the *Penoi*, which waters all the eastern declivities in the same circle, is not accurately known. The large lake of *Imandra* is discharged into the gulf of Kandala, and its level is 400 feet above the sea.

Appearance of the country.

The foaming cataract, the lofty precipice, islands covered with pines, and rugged rocks of a thousand varied forms seldom attract travellers to a bleak and desert country. The stranger is rarely exposed to the rays of a midnight sun, and as rarely reposes on the white elastic moss which grows along the banks of solitary rivers near the silent shades of rocks and forests. The rich Laplander does not often visit the plains, his rein deer quench their thirst at the springs and mountain streams; but the poor man repairs to the rivers, casts his nets across them during the day, and at night, (when there are nights in Lapland) he kindles his pine torch, and spears the fish that are attracted by the light to the surface of the water. Waterfalls, lakes, rivers and rocks are held sacred by the superstitious natives; and the operations of nature are supposed to be very mysterious in a country where her empire is not disputed by the art of man. We shall afterwards return to the same subject, but it may be remarked at present that the industrious and hardy Finns or *Quænes*, a flourishing colony, and far more numerous than the Laplanders, try to open communications between different provinces, their boats descend many of the torrents, and trees cut in the most remote forests are borne down precipitous rocks. The simple but clean cottages of the laborious Swedes are situated near the base of

the cataracts, or on the lowest declivities of the high country; but the crops which these settlers have introduced, are often destroyed by the inclemency of the seasons. The traveller, who leaves the country of wandering tribes, hunters and fishers, is suddenly surprised by the appearance of civilization. Smoke rises from the forges, the anvil resounds to the stroke of the hammer, the grating noise of saw-mills assails the ear, and the novel sight of clocks and steeples announces the religion of Christians. Such is the appearance of Torneo, at present a Russian town. But on the side of the White Sea, almost the whole country is one continued desert; some Russian hamlets, some white cabbage gardens, and a few fur storehouses near the mouths of solitary rivers, are the only marks of human industry.

Climate.

Lapland was the coldest country visited in past times by the travellers in western Europe, and its climate has thus obtained an unfortunate celebrity; still it is milder than that of any other region on the same parallel. Let it be compared for instance with the country of the Samoyedes, or the coasts of Siberia, which, though two or three degrees to the south, are never open until the end of July, while the coasts of Norwegian Lapland or Finmark are freed from ice in the month of May. An open, and ever-agitated sea is one great cause of the comparatively mild temperature on the northern coast of Norwegian Lapland, but the dense and humid mists must be attributed to the same cause, and it is only near the interior of gulfs sheltered from maritime-winds, or in districts at the elevation of seven or eight hundred feet, that the culture of grain succeeds, and that all the force of the heat accumulated in a day which lasts two months, is concentrated.[n] The maritime climate is much colder on the other side of cape North, and the harbours on the coast of eastern Lapland are sometimes blocked in the middle of June.

Maritime region.

[n] Other causes are enumerated in the article Norway.

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Climate of the central ridge.

The central ridge is more habitable than any other polar region in the same latitudes, its climate too has been better observed. Rye and barley are sown, ripened and reaped within the space of sixty-six days, but during the whole of that time there is no night. The short summer is enlivened by the songs of birds, the earth is in some places covered with flowers, but the coolness of evening is never felt, and the light is never succeeded by darkness. The summer may be contrasted with a rigorous winter, that continues eight months in the year; the cold is excessive, and mercury freezes frequently in the open air. The chilling blast penetrates the wretched huts of the Laplanders, but the provident *Quænes* are sheltered in their *pærrtes* or *oven-cottages*. The settlers admit that a terrestrial paradise is not to be found in Lapland, but the cold is perhaps more intense at Archangel than at Enontekis, and strangers suffer less inconvenience from the temperature of the central ridge, than from boisterous winds, and the chaotic confusion occasioned by the thawing of the wide rivers which intersect the plains.

Vegetation.

The vegetation of Norwegian and Swedish Lapland has been carefully examined by Wahlenberg and De Buch, and it is to be regretted that similar observations have never been made in the ancient Russian provinces. But as a great part of the Swedish territory has been added to the Russian, it may be as well to mention some of the facts stated by these able botanists. M. Wahlenberg distinguishes the following zones. First, *the lower region of the forests*, in which the fir, the *trifolium pratense*, the *convallaria majalis*, and the *nymphæa alba* flourish; it rises from the level of the sea to the height of 500 feet. Second, The *higher region of the forests*, from 500 to 800 feet, the fir still succeeds, but the other plants disappear. Third, The region of pines from 800 to 1200 feet, the fir is rarely if ever seen. Fourth, The *subalpine region* from 1200 to 1800 feet, the coniferous trees do not grow, they give place to the birch. Fifth, The *alpine region* or the country of the dwarf birch from 1800 to

2500 feet. Sixth, The higher alpine or the region of perpetual snow from 2500 to 3300 feet. These divisions are only applicable to the southern declivities of Lapland. M. de Buch has marked the vegetable scale in Norwegian Lapland or Finmark, the most northern country in Europe. The following table is intended for 70° north latitude. Limit of the red pines, 730 feet; of the birch, 1483; of the *vaccinium myrtillus*, 1908; of the dwarf birch, 2576; of the *salix myrsinites*, 2908.; of the *salix lanata*, 3100; and of perpetual snow, 3300. BOOK CVI.

Plants are not so profusely scattered in the country on the east of the Tana and the Kemi; but as the level is lower, there is probably no limit to the growth of the pine, much less to that of the birch. It is stated by Wahlenberg that not only the birch, but the pine and the fir flourish throughout the marshy plains near *Iwala-Iocki* in the parish of *Enara*, where the waters diverge towards the Frozen ocean and the Bothnian sea. Thus the zones of all these trees are confounded, or pass into each other.

Most plants observed in the temperate regions of Europe are not common to the high latitudes of Lapland, and the number of species which make up the *Flora Laponica* is inconsiderable. We do not maintain that the few plants supposed to belong exclusively to Lapland, in other words that the *rubus arcticus*, the *salix laponica*, the *ranunculus lap. et hyperboreus*, the *diapensia lap.* the *andromeda cærulea*, the *pedicularis lap.* the *orchis hyperborea* and others may not be found at a future period in different parts of the globe. Although the species are few in number, they abound in individuals, and the vegetation of Lapland is far superior to that of the other countries round the Frozen ocean. The lofty plains and rocks higher than 1000 feet, are covered with mosses and lichens. The rein deer's lichen is of a bright yellow colour, but as it dries or withers, it becomes as white as snow; indeed the illusion could hardly be discovered, were it not for the verdant bushes and tufted trees which interrupt the uniformity. The Flora Laponica. Mosses. Rein deer's lichen.

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same plant thrives better near the forests of fir than in the neighbourhood of the birch, and the Laplanders themselves are well aware that their lands might be more productive if their birch woods were destroyed. A plain surrounded by rocks, and covered with the rein deer's moss forms a Laplandic meadow. The oxen are fattened on this winter fodder, and the inhabitants extract from the lichen a sort of flour, which, if its taste be not very agreeable, is at least nutritive and wholesome. The Laplanders learnt from the instinctive sagacity of the bear, the use of the *muscus polytrichum* or bear's moss. Wherever it grows, every other kind of vegetation decays, but it furnishes rich pastures, and is applied to different purposes. Thus the moss and the coherent tissue of its roots are dug from the ground, the particles of earth are disengaged, and it is made into beds and matrasses, which almost all travellers prefer to any in the civilized countries of Europe. Plants useful in dying are common in the same country, and if the people were more industrious, bright colours might be extracted from the different lichens which are found in Lapland. The rocky country is the region of the *cryptogamia*, and the traveller observes on leaving it the sharp leaves of the *carex*, some of which are collected and dried in summer, and the cloaks or pelisses of the Laplanders are lined with them. The *rubus chamæmorus* and the *vaccinium myrtillus* grow near the extensive marshes, but few reeds or aquatic plants rise from the gelid waters of the lakes and rivers. The best pastures in Lapland are covered with Alpine herbage. The root of the *angelica*, and the stem of the *fonchus* are used as food, and of all the grains, barley is the one which thrives best, but the potato yields a surer harvest, and if its culture were general it might afford sufficient sustenance for all the inhabitants. If the cultivation of the cabbage and turnip has been attended with success, it must be attributed to the persevering industry of the Russian and Finnic peasants in Kola and Ponoi. But in this region the fruit-bearing shrubs

Bear's moss.

Pastures.

are the *nobles* of the vegetable kingdom.[o] The berries of the *rubus arcticus*, although of a delicate flavour, are perhaps surpassed by those of the *rubus chamæmorus*, which cover an extent of about 2400 square miles, and are doubly valuable from their healing virtue. The *vaccinium oxycoccus* and similar species arrive at perfection in a country from which most fruits appear to be banished.

Animals, the rein deer.

None of the quadrupeds in Lapland are so useful to man as the rein deer, indeed were it not for that animal, the life of the polar tribes must have been most wretched. It is the stag, the horse and the cow of these countries, its milk is of so rich a quality that it must be diluted in water, its flesh is far superior to that of the sheep, it is so hardy as to be almost insensible to cold, it is so easily maintained that it finds its food among the snowy wastes of the north. But the possession of this valuable animal is very uncertain; the wandering herds are sometimes dispersed in the woods, they disregard the voice of the shepherd, and his dogs cannot always collect them. They are not easily milked, and yield a very small quantity at a time. Thus to have abundance of milk and meat, the Laplander must have a numerous flock and extensive pastures, for the rein deer does not thrive in confinement, it loves to roam at large; it seeks in one season the freshness of the mountain air, and in another a place of shelter against the glacial winds. To speak strictly, the rein deer belongs only to the central ridge of Lapland, it does not thrive in summer on the coast of the Bothnian gulf, or in winter on the hazy islands of Finmark. The horse is terrified for the rein deer, and runs away at its approach, the cow evinces still greater horror, it cannot be driven into any place, where their recent footmarks are impressed.[p]

Electricity of the rein deer.

If it be recollected that a crackling noise from the bones of the leg announces at a distance the coming of the rein deer, an effect that can hardly be imputed to any other cause than a powerful

[o] The lilies, according to Linnæus, were the nobles of nature.

[p] This popular opinion has been confirmed by the learned De Buch.

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electricity which is sometimes detected on the skin, it may be natural to suppose that the aversion of other quadrupeds towards an animal graceful in its motions and symmetrical in its proportions proceeds only from an instinctive knowledge of its electrical qualities. The same fact may perhaps enable us to account for some of the diseases to which the rein deer is subject, and from which other quadrupeds are exempt; certain it is that in a few days the patriarchal wealth of the richest and most fortunate Laplander is sometimes destroyed. Then the shepherd king descends from his mountains to the banks of rivers, depends for a precarious subsistence on the produce of his nets, and drags out a wretched existence among tribes of fishers, whom he formerly despised. The greatest danger to which the shepherds are exposed, are general and sudden thaws followed by as sudden frosts. The snow is thus covered with a crust of ice, which the rein deer cannot penetrate, and consequently cannot open a passage to the lichens necessary for its existence. Famine then rages, and if it were not of short duration, all the animals might perish. The rein deer is harnessed to a sledge, which it draws during seven or eight hours with extraordinary rapidity, but at the end of that time, it falls down from exhaustion. The Laplander calls these animals by as many names as the Arab gives his horse; the male is generally termed *potso* and the female *vaica*.

Other animals.

The Swedish, Norwegian, and Russian peasants introduced horses, oxen and sheep into Lapland; the last have succeeded. The oxen lose their horns and the cows become white. Few elks frequent the forests, and the beaver is seldom seen on the rivers; but the bear, the glutton, the wolf and other carniverous animals pursue the squirrels, martens, hares, and the curious lemming-rats, which, it is said, always advance in straight lines from north to south, and are not diverted from their course by lakes or rivers, but try to cross them, although thousands are drowned in the attempt. If this opinion admitted by naturalists be correct, the followers of Pythagoras may conclude that *the*

souls of metaphysicians and geometers inhabit the bodies of rats. BOOK CVI.

The forests, shrubs and brushwood in the solitary regions of Lapland afford shelter to birds of passage, which arrive in flocks every summer. The shores of some islands are almost covered with the eggs of aquatic fowl, and the interior abounds in different species of game, the grouse, the white partridge and the snow hen. The *motacilla suecia* is the nightingale of Lapland, and it is called from its melodious notes the *satakielinen* or "the bird of a hundred tunes." The chantress of the desert feeds on the insects of Lapland, its neck is adorned with an azure plumage, and it never lives any length of time in more temperate regions. The rivers are stored with salmon and a variety of fish, but, about a month in the year from the fourteenth of July to the fourteenth of August, insects as numerous as in the countries on the torrid zone torment the traveller and the rein-deer; a day is the common period of their existence, and the soil is enriched by innumerable heaps of their dead bodies. Birds.

The productions of Lapland have been minutely observed by such men as Linnæus, De Buch and Wahlenberg, we have been induced to mention them more fully on that account, and because the physical geography of the same region is connected with that of all the countries on the east of the White Sea, which have hitherto been only visited by Russian travellers. We shall for the same reason examine without prejudice the most authentic narratives concerning the Laplanders themselves, a people who are generally considered a type of all the polar wandering tribes.

The Laplanders call themselves *Sabine* and *Same*, to that word the termination *lads* or *lain*, which signifies people or inhabitants, is generally added. They were first denominated Finns by the Scandinavian nations, but Saxo called them *Lappes* in the twelfth century, and they are always styled *Lepori* in the Russian annals, a name, which is probably derived from some obsolete Finnic word. Name.

BOOK CVI.

Appearance.

A Laplander may be known by his short stature, generally from four and a half to five feet, his large visage, hollow cheeks, sharp chin, thin beard, dark and coarse hair, and sallow complexion. A higher stature, a whiter skin and hair of a different colour are exceptions to the common character, or proofs of a mixture with other tribes. Hardened by his rude climate, the Laplander is strong and active; a young man can outstrip on his skates the fox and the wolf, the rigid bow yields to his nervous arm, and in his old age he carries heavy burdens, or swims across rivers. But no instances of great longevity can be cited; on the contrary, few of them live longer than fifty or sixty years, and although they are very cleanly in their habits, many suffer much from disease.

Character.

They are at once passionate and timid, their choler may be easily excited, but their fear prompts them to dissemble or suppress it. Every stranger is considered a spy, whose object is to discover their wealth, that a heavier impost may be exacted. Paper money was attempted without success to be introduced amongst them; fathers then concealed their gold and silver in the cavities of rocks, and forgot sometimes to tell their children where the wealth was deposited. This distrust is accompanied with great avarice and selfishness, he who has any thing to sell, always tries to cheat the purchaser, and the cunning Russian is often the dupe of the Laplander. Without pity and without compassion, they rarely assist the poor or wretched; without honour, they frequently acquire wealth by dishonest means. Their marriages are contracts of sale, and, in many instances, ill adapted to dispel the tedium of a solitary life. Relatives and kindred entertain each other, yet their hospitality is not disinterested, and the brandy bottle is the only talisman by which a stranger can be admitted into the hut or tent of a Laplander.

It ought, on the other hand, to be remarked that the nation has been long degraded by a superstitious worship, in which nothing like morality was ever enjoined, and the people, independently of that cause, have

not been improved by their intercourse with rude sailors and avaricious traders. It is not much more than thirty years since paganism was ostensibly abolished. Spiritous liquor may still be conveyed into the country with too much facility. The fishermen spend in this way the half of their income, and shepherds repair to spirit shops, and drink together a whole day until they are stretched on the ground in the sleep of drunkenness, from which they often pass into that of death.

Life of the rein-deer shepherds.

The Laplanders are divided into two classes, and the shepherds are superior in many respects to the fishermen. The care of tending the flocks devolves on all the members of the family, who have separate dogs that obey only the voice of their master. The rein-deer are marked in different ways on the ear, such as give milk or nourish young, are thus distinguished from others that draw the sledge, or are fattening for the butcher. A good shepherd can observe by glancing on his numerous flock, if any be amissing. It is a fine sight to see a whole family and a thousand rein-deer returning to the fold, and the young girls milking the rein-deer, while the boys hold them by ropes bound round the head. The pastures are quickly consumed, and the Laplanders are frequently obliged to migrate. Changes of this sort are sometimes indispensable almost every month in winter. The shepherds live in tents, which consist of stakes placed in the form of a pyramid, and covered with thick and coarse cloth. The smoke escapes from an aperture in the top, and pots and kettles are suspended over the fire from chains attached to the same opening. Rein-deer skins stretched on branches of birch trees are, during the day, the seats of about twenty individuals, and at night the beds of the same number. It is there that the Laplanders seated on their heels after the manner of eastern nations, spend in the beatitude of idleness all the moments they can spare from their pastoral labour. It is there that fathers, mothers, children, servants, dogs and travellers, if there are any, sleep. The tent or *kota* is encompas-

Tents.

BOOK CVI.

sed with stakes, the different provisions are kept in boxes attached to them, and chests are ranged on the inside round the cloth or covering, but these precautions are often unavailing against the impetuosity of the blast.

Manner of travelling, sledges.

The sledge of a Laplander is not unlike a small *wherry*, and the person within it must keep himself in equilibrium. The rein-deer draws from the head, and performs frequently a journey of fifty or sixty miles, but it sometimes stops from want of wind, or quits its direction in quest of moss, and at the end of three days the best of them are unfit for service. A family of Laplanders travel in a number of sledges, which are divided into *raids* or lines, the father, the mother and each child guide a rein-deer. Different articles of trade are transported by the poorest inhabitants in the same manner. The Laplander has recourse to his snow shoes in winter, and travels or pursues his game on the ice with much boldness and extraordinary rapidity. In summer he often walks and loads his rein-deer with his merchandise; he makes use too of a frail bark, which is moved on wheels from lake to lake, and as many of the lakes are situated near each other, this is the best method of travelling in several parts of the ridge. A journey into the interior in the midst of summer, during a perpetual day, is attended with much inconvenience; the transport of goods is then more difficult, the rivers are so many barriers, the insects are troublesome, the heat is oppressive, and the forests are occasionally on fire. Linnæus mentions one of these fires produced by lightning. "The devastation extended to the distance of several Swedish miles.[q] The part which I crossed was not less than three quarters of a mile, all the wood was consumed, in other places the trees were still burning. The wind rose suddenly, the flames were rekindled, and a noise was heard in the half-consumed forest, like the shock of two conflicting armies. It was fortunate that my companions and myself

Burning of the forests.

[q] A Swedish mile is equal to $4 + \frac{1}{6}$ English miles.

were not crushed by the trees that fell on every side around us."[r] BOOK CVI.

The Laplanders cover themselves with cloaks of the rein-deer's skin, their pantaloons and boots are made of the same substance, which is dressed in different ways according to the seasons. The women put on cloth trowsers in winter, but they wear a lighter sort during the short summers. The same persons are the only tailors in the country, and they spare no pains in adorning themselves. Their dress is showy and somewhat like that of savages; the shape of the bonnet varies in different districts, but it is everywhere covered with tufts of tin thread. A girdle thickly studded with tin or silver ornaments, is a part of the costume, and a purse hangs from it, which contains tobacco, needles, scissors, a knife, silver and tin chains; their numerous rings too are generally kept in it. It appears from the *Sagas*, that the ancient Finns manufactured several articles, which they now purchase; even the goddesses of the Scandinavian Asgard were indebted for their jewels to the magical art of the *dwarfs* in Finmark. The modern Laplanders make very fine thread from the nerves and entrails of rein-deer, strong cord from roots, horn spoons and snuff boxes, that are prized in Sweden, and the wooden figures, which they carve on some of the sledges, might perhaps merit the attention of antiquaries. The shepherds live well, and the stranger is sometimes invited to partake of good soup, an excellent roast, bear's ham and a dish of *kappatialme*, or rich cream and delicate conserves. A cheese made from the milk of the rein-deer is at least equal, if not superior to any other, but the butter is so bad as to be hardly eatable. The care of the kitchen has, since the introduction of Christianity, been committed to the women, who were formerly supposed to be polluted and unworthy of the office.

Dress.

Industry.

The life of the fishermen is very different from that of the shepherds; the former have associated so much with

[r] Lachesis Laponica.

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the *Finno-Quænes*, that they have forgotten their original dialect, and are likely, ere long, to become a wholly distinct tribe from the real Laplanders. Their wooden and clay cottages are built near the fishing stations on the banks of rivers, their boats are constructed of light planks bound together with cordage made of roots; but if we judge from the nets that are stretched across the streams to impede the salmon, or from the cod hooks that are used in the gulfs, their knowledge of the arts must be very imperfect. Provisions are often exhausted in winter, and many are then reduced to live on the ground bark of the pine tree, kneaded with rein-deer's lard. It is affirmed, that all the women in Finmark manufacture different woollen goods, but much accurate information has not hitherto been obtained concerning the fishing tribes on the coasts of the Frozen and White Sea.

Feasts, songs.

The Laplanders assemble occasionally at feasts, and seldom depart before the whole repast is consumed. The *puolem-vine*, or brandy brought from Flensborg, circulates freely, and mirth is evinced in noisy loquacity. All the guests thunder the wild discord of their *jolias* or national songs, and the amusement is sometimes varied by cards, which are made from the bark of trees, and coloured with the blood of the rein-deer. Hundreds meet at marriage feasts, and remain perhaps longer than the bride or bridegroom would wish. Children are brought up without much trouble; as soon as a son is born, several rein-deer are set apart for him, these are his property, and he receives afterwards his share in the succession.

Diseases, medicine.

The study of the diseases to which savages are subject, and of the remedies which they employ, leads often to unexpected results. Thus the *oullem* or colick occasioned by the vapid and heated water of lakes and marshes, could hardly be supposed a disease of polar countries, but it is not uncommon in Lapland, and the specific employed against it, is a sort of fungus that grows on birch trees; small fragments are set on fire, applied to the part affected, and allowed to burn slowly.

The language of the Laplanders is a Finlandic dialect, but it contains so many words which are obsolete or foreign to the mother tongue, that the inhabitants of the two nations require an interpreter to explain their meaning. The individuals of different tribes among the Laplanders themselves, cannot understand each other without much difficulty. It follows from these facts that the grammars and vocabularies published by the Danish and Swedish missionaries may throw some light on the general character of the language, and the identity or difference between several vocables. The numerous cases, the varied terminations of nouns and compound verbs, the method of expressing pronouns by *affixa* joined to verbs, and lastly, the negative conjugations are characteristics equally applicable to the languages of Finland, Esthonia and Lapland. The last is in some respects still poorer than the other two, thus there are five words for snow, seven or eight for a mountain, but honesty, virtue and conscience must be expressed by a periphrasis.[s] The Laponic has been mixed, perhaps still more than the other Finnic tongues, with the German and Scandinavian, which were spoken by the conquerors, who were too often the tyrants of the Finnic race.[t] It is remarkable that some old Hunga-

[s] Leem's Grammatica Laponica, Copenhagnen, 1748 (dialect of Porsanger.) Idem, De Laponibus Finmarchiæ, eorumque lingua, 1767. Ganander's Grammatica Laponica, 1743: (dialect of Kemi.) *Hægstræm's* Description of Swedish Lapland, p. 69-86, (dialect of the mountains and the north-west.) Lexicon Laponicum by *Lindhal* and *Ochrling*.

[t] Klaproth found *Germanic* words in the Finnic dialects. The proportion out of a number amounting to two hundred and twenty, was as one to twenty; had the same philologist sought Scandinavian words, he might have found twice as many. Thus *Gambol*, old, corresponds with *gammel*. *Skautia*, a beard, with *skuti*, prominent in Icelandic. *Wælia*, a brother, with *fielleds*, common in Danish, *fellow*, a Danish and English word, and *Velaa*, a brother in Albanian. *Kos*, a cow, with *ko*. *Nuor*, young, with *noor* an infant in Danish. *Kĕra-suat*, love, with *kier-lighed* in Danish, and perhaps *karitas* in Latin. *Ro-kohcm*, a mist, with *raukur*, darkness in Icelandic. *Lonu*, shelter, with *lummig* sheltered, in Swedish, &c. &c.

BOOK CVI.

rian roots are to be found in the same dialect and not in the others connected with it.[u] It has been inferred from that fact, and from a resemblance between the Woguls and other *Iougorian* tribes, that the Laplanders are the descendants of a Hunnic mixed with a Finnic people, or perhaps a distinct branch of the great Finno-Hunnic race, whose country, according to the fabulous history of Scandinavia, was the same as the one inhabited by the Laplanders, and included also Iemtia, Dalecarlia, Osterdal and Wermeland. It is certain that the principal roots and derivatives in the Laponic bear less affinity with those in the languages of Upper Asia, than any other Finnic dialect. It is perhaps a monument of the barbarous tongues spoken by the primitive tribes of eastern Europe, and its origin is lost in that obscure but interesting period, in which our continent, like Africa and America in later times, was overrun in every direction by wandering tribes.

Superstition of the Laplanders.

Many instances of human weakness might be collected from the superstition of the Laplanders—an universal idolatry in which the elements were typified, and a polytheism, by which every object in nature was changed into a god, formed the basis of their worship, which, it is true, has often been misrepresented by merchants and even by injudicious missionaries. One ludicrous error may be mentioned, the Laplanders, it is asserted, adore several idols that are termed *Stor-iun-kare* or, by interpretation, young noblemen and men of fashion, for such is the double meaning of that Norwegian word. The supposed resemblance between the Scandinavian Thor and the Laponic Tiermes may have originated from the confusion of tribes, or from their connexion with strangers. At all events, the most valuable information on the subject is contained in a work which has not been rightly understood by the German writers.[x]

[u] See Sainovicz and Klaproth. We shall mention one example, *vagy* a valley corresponds with volgy a valley in Hungarian.

[x] Iessen on the Heathenism of the Norwegian Laplanders. See the continuation of Leem's Description of Finmark.

Radien-Athsie, the creator of the universe, and *Radien-Kiedde*, his son, who governed in the name of his father, reigned in the highest heavens. These divinities soared in the *werald* or ethereal space, interfered seldom in the affairs of mortals, and were almost unknown except to the *Noaiadas* or men above the skies.[y] We pass to the powers in the visible heaven, *Baiwe* the goddess of the sun had under her command three inferior genii, that ruled on Friday, Saturday and Sunday. The air was the residence of an immense number of deities; they governed the elements, and were divided into two families. The one branch was sprung from *Joumala* or the good principle, that dwelt both in the clouds and in the water. The *Seites* were the offspring of *Perkal*, the infernal king, who assisted the wizards and all the enemies of humanity. The Swedish writers might have committed fewer errors had they always attended to the above distinction,[z] which does not, however, obviate every difficulty. On the contrary, there are many that it is impossible to explain, because the signification attached to the names of the different divinities in different districts is now unknown. *Hora-Galles* is perhaps the same as *Tiermes* and *Toraturos*; he darts the thunder, breaks the rocks, and overwhelms the magicians with his double hammer. The same power presides over the seasons, the fruits of the earth, and the produce of the chase; but according to some traditions he was originally a mischievous genius, descended from Perkal, and afterwards educated and sanctified by Joumala.[a] *Ayeke* or the aged is his surname, and his seven-coloured bow shines in the heavens. *Biag-Olmai*, the lord of the winds and tempests, and *Lieb-Olmai*, the god of hunters, appeared often in human forms and wandered on the holy mountains.[b] The *Saiwos* or the wicked spirits received in

Names of the gods.

Two families of gods.

[y] Werald is a Scandinavian word, hence the English word world. *Ketiæ* signifies second in Hungarian, Wogul and Ostiake. Noaiad appears to be of Samoyedan origin, from *noa* and *nob*, the heavens.

[z] Scheffer, Lap. 61, 91, 92, 96. Hægstrom's Lapland, 195, 196.

[a] Torner, De origine Fennorum.

[b] Olma signifies a man.

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caverns the souls of bad men, or of all those that were not invited by *Radien-Athsie* to the higher heavens. The condemned were brought before *Jabme-Akko*,[c] the mother of the dead, who delivered the most guilty to frightful torments, which were inflicted on them by *Rota*, a hellish fiend, whose name was all that he possessed in common with one of the Wodinian Valkyrias.

Worship.

Such was the mythology of the Laplanders. We have given an account derived from scattered fragments, the system itself no longer exists. Whatever may be the worship of wandering barbarians, the advantages expected by their religious lawgivers are rarely if ever realized. Good and bad genii, whose power was exerted for the benefit or destruction of man, have been the objects of Laponic devotion since their country was first visited by travellers. *Tiermes*, the protector of vivifying nature, was loved and adored in the cottage and the tent, the great Seite, the chief evil spirit was worshipped and feared in solitary forests or on almost inaccessible rocks, and *Baiwe*, the goddess of the sun, had her sacred table near the huts. Sacrifices of male and fully grown rein-deer were offered to Tiermes, the same victims together with dogs, cats and poultry, bled to avert the wrath of the Seite, but the goddess of light accepted only the offerings of young and female rein-deer, and while the altars of the two former divinities were adorned with branching horns, the bones of her victims were placed in a circle round the sacred table. No images were erected in honour of *Baiwe*, but that of Tiermes was made of wood, and changed every year. It was merely the trunk of a birch tree, part of which was rudely emblematic of the head; a hammer and a flint, the symbols of the god, lay near the clumsy statue. Seite had a stone for his idol, and, according to the fancy of the worshippers, the figure of a man, a quadruped or a bird was cut on it; but a stone that had been irregularly hollowed by the water of a ca-

Idols.

[c] *Akko*, a mother, corresponds with *anik* in Samoyedan.

taract, was chosen in preference to every other. Some ancient idols are still to be seen in the island of *Darra*, which is situated near the edge of the great lake Torneo; although the place is of dangerous access, it was often stained with the blood of victims. The priests determined every year to which of the three powers the great sacrifice should be offered. The magical ring was made to revolve on a drum, and if it fell opposite an idol, the question was settled; but if all the gods refused the victims, the worshippers predicted some dire disaster. BOOK CVI.

The holy ground in ancient Lapland might have formed an extensive district. The adjectives *passe* or sacred and *ayeka* or divine are still added to the names of a great many places. The picturesque banks of a lake, the rock which projected over a foaming cataract, the gloomy valley or ravine, and the island crowned with aged fir trees, were all of them consecrated to religious terror.[d] Many stone and wooden idols and alcoves from two to five feet above the ground, the places on which the victims bled, have been observed in Russian Lapland by modern travellers.[e] It was customary to carve figures on sacred trees, some of them still remain. The Laplanders passed before their gods in profound silence, and the women, supposing themselves unclean, turned aside their eyes, or covered their faces with a veil.[f] Great men were deified after death, their souls became powerful spirits, that were propitiated by sacrifices. The sledge which bore a corpse was overturned, and the rein-deer that drew it was slain on the tomb or near a pile of stones. Holy places.

The navigators of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, have related many wonderful stories about the magic of the *Finns* and the *Finno Lappes*, who sold wind contained in a cord with three knots. If the first were untied, the wind became favourable, if the second, still Magic.

[d] Scheffer's Laponia, p. 102. [e] Georgi, Nations Russes.
[f] Leem's Description of Finmark, Chap. xx.

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more so, but if the third were loosed, a tempest was the inevitable consequence. The people in the interior had light and elastic balls made of wool, and *gans* or charms not much larger than flies. It was thought that the wizards could throw these weapons through the air, and strike the individual on whom they wished to inflict a lingering or mortal disease. The word *gan* or *gand* is common to the Finnic, Celtic, Scandinavian and German languages, it means generally deceit,[g] illusion or magic,[g] hence *Gand wick* or the Gulf of Magicians, a name given by Scandinavian navigators to the White Sea, because all its coasts were at one time inhabited by Finnic nations. The drum was the great instrument of the magician, idols were fixed on it, the *arpa* or sacred rings moved to the strokes of his hammer, and from its motions he was able to foretell future events and the will of the gods.[h] The wizard fell sometimes on the ground and counterfeited death; his colour fled, his respiration ceased, his spirit was supposed to travel into distant countries, frequently into the other world. When the soul returned after a long absence into the body, the priest told the spectators what places he had visited, what he had learnt; remedies were prescribed, sacrifices enjoined, and whatever the sorcerer commanded, was implicitly obeyed. The *Schamans* of central Asia exercised the same arts, they had their drums, and fell into similar ecstasies. The wizards of Lapland exhibited their tricks to intelligent Swedes, and these foreign-

Gulf of Magicians.

[g] *Gand* or *gan* signifies magic or witchcraft in ancient Scandinavian. See *Landnama-Bok*, vocabulum, *Worm.* Specimen lexici Runici, p. 83. *Gand-reid*, magical equitation, *Ibid.* *Gand-alfar*, spirits and magicians that pass through the water on enchanted staffs. *Gan-eska* and *gan-kid* a box for magical instruments, Ibid. *Ganas* is a word still used in Lower Brittany for a deceiver or enchanter. *(Bullet.)* *Enganno*, deceit in Spanish, *Inganno*, the same signification in Italian. *Ganner*, a sharper in German. M. Roquefort need not have rejected the opinion of Bullet, who has clearly proved that the *ganellon* of the chivalrous romances, that betrayed the twelve peers of France at Roncevallos, and delivered them to the Saracens, was merely a magician. See the word *gane* in the Glossaire de la langue Romane.

[h] The drum was called *quobdas* or *gobodes*, *kannus* or *ganusch*.

ers, though convinced of the imposture, confessed themselves unable to detect it. Different theories have been advanced, and the prophetic transes have been considered the effects of excessive intoxication and *animal magnetism*. BOOK CVI.

All the Swedish and Norwegian Laplanders are now members of the reformed church, they are Christians ashamed of their former superstitions and idols; but those in the ancient Russian territory are ill instructed in divine truths by the eastern priests, they profess Christianity and retain their heathen ceremonies.

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EUROPE.

Europe continued. European Russia. Fourth Section. Provinces round the Baltic Sea.

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General survey.

THE modern capital of the Russian empire is at no great distance from the polar deserts. Strangers may travel to Petersburg on frozen lakes, without putting off their Laponic furs, or leaving their sledge, or unharnessing their rein-deer. The Russian provinces round the Baltic were inhabited by Finnic tribes, that fled before the Goths and Germans, who were forced to submit to the colossal power of Russia. The soil is barren, and the climate is cold, but palaces and temples are built on fens and marshes; and merchant fleets and naval squadrons are seen from the neighbouring rocks. The Russian cabinet, which is enveloped in fogs or covered with hoar-frost, forms its political schemes, and extends its sway on the banks of the Danube, and the central regions of Asia. It is from these provinces that the Russian observes with indifference the wars and revolutions in Europe. Alas, for what purpose have Charles and Gustavus subdued the Finns, or the Waldemars displayed the *danebrog* in Esthonia,[a] or the Teutonic knights planted the cross in the blood of the *Lives* and *Kources*? The czar of Muscovy issued from his unknown forests, and seized the fruits of so many heroic achievements.

[a] The Danebrog was a banner presented by the pope to the kings of Denmark.

The provinces are naturally subdivided by the Neva and the gulf of Finland. The present great dutchy of Finland comprehends, besides the former Swedish province of the same name, all the government of Wiburg, or the ancient Russian Finland. It makes up on the north-west about a third part of that remarkable *region of great lakes* to which we have already called the attention of our readers.[b] We shall now offer some remarks on its physical geography and political history. If we enter into any details, it is because we consider them not destitute of interest, and because much useful information may be derived from the works of statistical and ethnographical writers.[c]

Finland.

Finland is nearly as broad as the isthmus formed by the White Sea and the Baltic, an isthmus which connects Scandinavia and Russia, although its physical character is different from both these countries. The range of the Scandinavian mountains terminates on the north of Norway, and the heights in Finland are inconsiderable and detached. If any of them retain the appearance of a chain, it is those between Ostrobothnia on one side, and Savolax, Tavastland and Finland on the other. These heights consist chiefly of slate and hard lime-stone, they extend towards the town of Biorneborg, and terminate at the coasts of the Bothnian gulf. But they are merely a continuation of the interior ridge, and perhaps of the eastern part of the chain *Manselka*. Their name signifies the *division of the land*, but none of them have hitherto attracted attention. The southern confines of the same ridge are still lower, they are composed of granite, and below that rock are calcareous strata and fine marble in some places on the north of the lake Ladoga. The middle of Finland is thus a plain or ridge from four hundred to six hundred feet above the level of the sea. That part of the country abounds in lakes, and is covered with rocks,

Physical description.

Mountains.

Central ridge.

[b] See chapters 1st, 2d, and 3d, of this volume.

[c] Ruhs, Finnland und seine bewhner.

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none of which form lofty chains, and they are generally composed of a red granite, which is termed *rapa-kivi*, in Finland, and decomposes with extraordinary rapidity. M. Gadd, a Swedish naturalist, maintains that the decomposition is most rapid when the granite contains a small portion of quartz, a great quantity of red feldspar, and a variety of ferruginous and sulphureous mica; still, however, the white feldspar granite is subject to the same spontaneous decomposition.

Giants caldrons.

The circular or rather spiral excavations in some rocks in Finland, are called by the natives the *iette-grytor* or giants caldrons. Different naturalists suppose them to have been formed not by a former but the present sea, yet many are situated in the interior, and others on the shore.

Ores.

It has been proved by repeated observations that Finland is ill provided with the metals which are so common in Scandinavia. It is believed, indeed, that there are no veins in the country, but only metallic alluvial deposits, which contain native iron, lead, sulphur and arsenic. It is certain that iron was once worked in Finland proper, but the Finlanders now import that metal from Sweden. Although a great quantity of nitre is made in the country, that branch of industry might be still more productive.

Rivers and lakes.

Finland is intersected by an immense number of lakes, from which many rivers rise, but none of them water a great extent of country. Thus the *Ulea* and the *Koumo* enter the gulf of Bothnia, the *Kymmene* is precipitated from different cataracts into the gulf of Finland, and the wide Woxa enlarges the lake Ladoga. The most central lake in the country is the *Payana* or the *Peaceable* from which the river Kymmene derives its source; it is about seventy-two miles in length, and thirteen in breadth. The lake of *Saima* on the east, which is crowded with islands, is still larger than the last. If its bays and inlets be included, it may perhaps be equal to one hundred and fifty miles in length, and to twenty or twenty-two at

its greatest breadth. It falls from six cataracts, of which the Imatra is the highest, and then communicates by the Woxa with the lake Ladoga.

Enclosure of rocks.

The coasts of Finland, particularly those on the south, are bounded by innumerable rocks of no great elevation above the sea. They rise for the most part in the form of peaks, are united in some places into groups, and extend in others like chains. They consist of a variety of granite and limestone, but it must be confessed that no very correct notion of them can be derived from the different topographical plans, which have hitherto been published. The small and intricate channels, the dangerous straits, the naked and rugged rocks, the tufted pines and firs, which crown some islands, and the shrubs that cover the sides of others, render the labyrinth one of the wonders in physical geography.[d]

Different climates.

The climate of southern Finland is cold and very variable; the thermometer descends so low as 24° or 25° below zero, and the crops are exposed in summer to excessive droughts. The country on the north of Ostrobothnia participates in the climate of Lapland, and grain is frequently sown and reaped in the neighbourhood of Uleaborg, where the soil is in general sandy, within the space of six weeks. The rapid growth of the plants must be attributed to the calmness of the nights and the perpetual presence of the sun. Frost continues seven months in Ostrobothnia, it begins in October, and does not terminate before the end of April. Spring therefore is almost unknown; summer begins in June, and ends in August, autumn and winter make up the rest of the year. The heavy rains in September, and the thaws in May and June render it almost impossible to travel in these months.

Scenery.

The great disadvantage of the climate in the interior ridge arises from the lakes and marshes, which diffuse cold and unwholesome mists. The red granite, the moss-grown rocks, the green meadows, the blue lakes and crystal wa-

[d] Manuscript Notes of a Finlander.

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terfalls are rarely illumined by a cloudless sky. The brightness of the tints is too often effaced, and all the scenery enveloped in dismal fogs. The lake is darkened, the meadow loses its verdure, and the only contrast that remains out of so many, is the noise of the tempest, and the silence of the desert.

Soil.

A great part of the soil in Finland consists of a vegetable mould, and it is more fertile in many places than the hard and rocky ground in Sweden. The secale in the vicinity of Wasa, at 63° north latitude, is of a superior quality; buck wheat arrives at great perfection in Tavastland and Savolax, and barley and oats are everywhere cultivated. In good seasons the return is as eight to one of secale, and as seven to one of barley. The grain exported from Swedish Finland in 1795, amounted to 100,000 tons, but it exceeds rarely in ordinary years 45,000, and the inhabitants in the ancient Russian provinces cannot raise a sufficient quantity for their own consumption.

Animals.

The cattle in Finland are small, ill kept and subject to contagious diseases, by which a great many are destroyed. The Carelian horses are hardier and stronger than those in Sweden, but a mixed breed has been introduced, which is ill adapted for the climate. A great variety of game, particularly different kinds of birds, are concealed in the immense forests; the bear and the wolf are also very common. The rivers abound in excellent salmon, and herring and seal fisheries have been established in the labyrinth of islands and rocks, which surround the coasts of Finland.

Forests.

The forests are too often laid waste, but they yield plenty of tar, pitch, naval timber and fire wood. A hundred thousand cart loads of trees are imported every year into Stockholm; many of the peasants in Finland are employed in cutting wood, and each village has its wrights, joiners or turners, and the different articles that they make, are sold in the northern countries of Europe.

Fruit trees.

The culture of fruit trees is not incompatible with the climate of Finland; cherries and apples ripen at Wasa and

Jacobstadt in Ostrobothnia, and wild apple trees grow on the base of the hills that separate Ostrobothnia and Tavastland. The oak and the nut tree are rarely found beyond the sixtieth parallel, and then only in sheltered situations, but the ash extends to the sixty-second. The flax in Finland, though not very long or very fine, is at least as strong as the best in Russia.

The whole province is much more fruitful than might have been inferred from its astronomical position, and a sufficient quantity of food could be raised on it for two millions of inhabitants. But it must be admitted that human industry is checked by natural obstacles, which cannot be easily overcome. The rising corn is often destroyed by sudden frosts, and at the time when it is likely to reward the labour of the husbandman, it is sometimes devoured by a sort of caterpillar, which the natives call *turila*. Prayers were formerly read in the churches, and the divine protection was implored against that destructive insect. The peasants are obliged from the humidity of the air to dry all the grain in ovens, similar to those in the different Russian provinces; by this process, corn may be kept in Finland fifteen or eighteen years.

Method of tilling the ground.

The excessive moisture of the soil may render the method which the Finlanders employ in cleaning the ground, excusable, perhaps necessary, but if it be pushed to excess, it is most hurtful to the forests. The Finlanders have from time immemorial sown their seed in ashes obtained from the burning of trees. The lands thus dressed are divided into three classes. The *houktas* or *halmes* are those districts on which white firs and old timber have been scattered when the leaves are expanded; the wood remains two years in this state, it is afterwards set on fire, and secale is put into the ground. The *kaski* are the lands on which young trees are strewed and burnt about a year afterwards; the soil is then fit for barley or oats, turnips or secale. Lastly, the shrubs and brushwood which are spread on the *kieskamaa* or low hills in spring, are soon dried and reduced to ashes; crops of buck

BOOK CVII. wheat or flax are sometimes reaped in the succeeding autumn. The trees are burnt in some places in the midst of summer, and the seed is sown on the same evening in which the fire is extinguished; it thus adheres more readily to the ashes by means of the dew, which acts as a sort of cement, and it is less apt to be carried away by the wind. The ground is then turned with the *kaskisachra* or forked plough, and broken with a wooden harrow, instruments much better adapted for the purpose to which they are applied, than the common plough and the iron harrow. If the labour succeeds, the first crops yield about thirty or forty to one, nay, some fields have returned a hundred-fold.

The Finlanders have another method of cultivating the *kytæ* or marshy lands. Plants and trees are burnt on a small portion by way of experiment; if the ashes are red, it is a sign that the ground may be long and profitably cultivated; but if they are white, the land is supposed to be of a bad quality. The next object is to make outlets for the water; the trees, if there be any, are cut, and the whole space is, after the lapse of some years, encompassed with a ditch. The roots are dug, the turf is burnt, and the ground dried; the field is then impregnated with ashes, ploughed and sown.

This ancient system of agriculture cannot be wholly approved or wholly condemned. There is no surer or better way of bringing fens covered with brushwood into cultivation. But the peasants are too anxious to clear the forests; fields, which might yield regular crops, are neglected that greater harvests may be reaped from ashes.

The shallows and cataracts in many rivers in Finland render them useless for navigation, and in addition to that disadvantage, they often overflow their banks and inundate the plains. The Swedes therefore acted wisely in not extending their excellent roads to every part of the province. Thus the progress of agriculture is retarded in the interior by the difficulty of communication. The peasants, it is true, have many boats, and en-

joy the privilege of exporting the produce of their lands, still we must not forget the obstacles against which they have to struggle, or the short duration of summer, the weight and size of the articles that are exported, and the great distance from the interior to the mercantile towns on the coast. The northern Carelians must travel a hundred or a hundred and twenty-five miles to the nearest town. The Finlanders were compelled from their situation to make the utensils, the furniture and even the dresses which they required. There were whole districts, whose inhabitants never repaired to a town but for the purpose of obtaining salt. The Finlander thus limited in his wants and desires, enjoyed a sort of patriarchal independence, and passed his monotonous days far from civilization or the bustle of commerce. In this way many lived and died, although at the gates of a large city, in which the luxury of Europe is united to the effeminacy of Asia. The comparatively recent junction of the province to the Russian empire, has opened an advantageous market for Finland, and the inhabitants are already more industrious. BOOK CVII.

Provinces and Towns. Carelia.

The former government of Wiburg was divided into six small departments, and comprehended nearly the whole of Carelia or *Kyriala*, an ancient Finnic principality. The country abounds in sand and marshes, and the inhabitants gain a subsistence by cutting wood, by salmon fishing and the chase. They boast however of the pearls in the river *Jananus*, and the marble in the department of *Serdobol*. Ruskalk furnishes its ash-coloured marble with green and yellow veins, and Sumeira is famed for its fine red granite. The town of Wiburg was built in 1293 by the Swedes near *Suome-Linna*, the capital of the Carelians, and was formerly considered one of the bulwarks of Sweden. *Frederickshamn*, a more modern fortress, has, like the other, lost its military importance; in the same manner, *Wilmanstrand* or *Lapperanda*, *Nyslot* or *Savolinna* and other fortifications rose into temporary notice from their position on the frontiers. *Rotschensalm*, on the contrary, ought to be more fully mentioned, because it is situated

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between the two mouths of the Kymmene. It is a fortified port where forty ships of the line may anchor, and a station for a fleet of gallies; among its edifices are barracks for 14,000 men. This station, founded in 1795, was at that time the remotest frontier town in the province; but the Swedes have since had ample reason to repent that the noise of their cannon was heard in the neighbourhood of Petersburg. Such an establishment is unnecessary beyond the labyrinth of rocks which surround partly Sweden and Finland. The sea, flowing in a thousand straits and basins, rolls its impetuous billows, which are broken against projecting rocks; at another place, its calm surface is sheltered by islands against every wind. What ships then drawing much water could sail among rocks, where at every fifty yards they might enter a shallow, or be endangered at every island by the discharge of a twenty-four pounder from a concealed sloop? The various methods of warfare that might be employed on such coasts, can be easily imagined. A line of sloops may defend a passage between inaccessible rocks, or issue suddenly from an unknown strait. Two squadrons may be driven by currents against each other, they may mix, be confounded, and combat man to man. The best contrived schemes are often baffled by unforeseen obstacles, and victory is in a great degree the result of individual talent and courage. A vessel is frequently shipwrecked, or exposed to a masked battery. The assailants may be dispersed by the winds and billows, or the pursuit of the victors be impeded by a calm; in short, it is the most uncertain and various warfare of any mentioned in the records of modern history.

Manner of fighting.

Kuopio.

The department, formerly the prefecture of *Kuopio*, extends to the north of the government of Wiburg, and is formed on the east by northern Carelia, and on the west by Savolax or the northern *Savo-Ma*, a country of lakes, forests and sandy heaths, where the bear, the wolf, the elk and the wild rein-deer are found in great numbers. The lofty plains which separate the waters of the province from Cayania, are covered with snow ten months in the year. The inhabitants rear cattle, export potashes, tar

and butter, and raise a sufficient quantity of barley, secale and turnips for their own consumption; but the climate is too cold for peas, beans and the ordinary leguminous plants. Calcareous rocks and *lapis ollaris* or pot-stone are not uncommon in Carelia; and iron ore is found in greater quantities near Stromsdal, and in many parts of Savolax than in the rest of Finland. The inhabitants of *Taipali* in the parish of Tibelitz are now as industrious as the Russians, as great adepts in commercial knavery, and as rigid observers of the Greek rites; but the people in Kuopio and the other towns have not hitherto made much progress in the arts or civilization. Two large basins are marked by two series of lakes, those in northern Carelia are the *Pielis*, that extends from north to south, the limpid *Hoytiainen* and the *Oro-Vesi*, which discharge their waters into the *Puru-Vesi* or gulf of the Saimen. The largest lakes in Savolax are the *Kalla-Vesi* and *Hanka-Vesi*, both of them flow into the Saimen. The basins are not divided by contiguous heights but by necks of sandy land, and some of the lakes in the interior are separated from each other by natural dikes, which are so narrow that a man cannot pass them on horseback.

Basins of the Lakes.

The province of *Heinola* or *Kymenegard* is made up of lower Savolax and the eastern frontier of Nyland. A great part of it is sandy and marshy, but the land becomes more fruitful as we descend the Kymmene towards the gulf of Finland. The different grains cultivated in the province are the same as those which succeed in the other districts. A great quantity of butter is sold, secale is exported every year, and the inhabitants are now paying greater attention to the culture of hemp and flax. *Lovisa* and its citadel *Svartholm* are no longer a military station, but manufactures are still carried on in the ancient and dismal town of Borgo.

Heinola.

The Swedish prefecture of *Tavastehus* is now the department of *Helsingfors*, which comprises the greater portion of Nyland and Tavastland. The first of these provinces, or the Finnic *Uhsi-mă*, and the last or the *Haime-ma* are

BOOK CVII. the most fruitful in Finland. According to the calculation of M. Gadd, the quantity of corn exported from the two provinces amounts in good years to 27,630 tons, and is not less in bad seasons than 14,224. The greater part of Nyland is low and flat, but some heights are observed in the interior, and the elevation of the lake *Loppis* is about 343 feet above the gulf of Finland. The rivers are well stored with fish, the forests are large, and many abound in oaks. Although rocks are thickly scattered in many parts of the country, much of the land is arable, the meadows are large, and the pastures are rich. Mines of copper and iron have been discovered, there is no scarcity of lime, and the hop yields plentiful harvests. Some manufactures might be mentioned, but the wealth of the inhabitants consists in the produce of their fields and rivers. They trade in fish, wood and grain, yet the greater number are too indolent to avail themselves of the best methods of husbandry.

Tavastland. Tavastland, particularly the southern portion, is a fruitful and compact district; it is watered by lakes and rivers, its forests are valuable, its fields and meadows productive; indeed, as to natural advantages, it is not only the first province in Finland, but none in the ancient kingdom of Sweden surpassed it in fertility, yet cultivation is neglected, and the inhabitants are poor. The lake Payane often inundates the neighbouring lands, and the falls in the river Kymmene shut effectually the only outlet for the produce of the country. Northern Tavastland is more mountainous, a greater portion of it is covered with forests, and it is partly included in the government of Wasa. The western lakes of Tavastland unite near *Tammersfors*, and flow by the *Kumo* into the gulf of Bothnia.

Remarkable places. *Tavastehus*, the former *Kroneberg* or the Finnic *Hoeme-Kaupungi* is the only place of consequence in the interior; it is built near the small fortress of *Tavasteborg*, which was converted during the last war into an arsenal for the left wing of the Swedish army. Some places not unworthy of notice are situated on the gulf of Finland. *Hango-Udd* or the pro-

montory of Hango is the southmost point in continental Finland, but it lies to the north of several islands, which surround it. The latitude of the watch tower at the entrance of the gulf is 59°, 45′, 58″, and near it is a spacious harbour protected by the fortress of *Gustafs-Vern*, now a very important military position for Russia, and formerly the bulwark of Sweden. *Helsingfors*, a commercial town in a fruitful peninsula, has a safe and deep port, and a rapidly increasing population of nine or ten thousand souls; it is at present styled the capital of the great dutchy, and if we may judge from the advantages of its position, it is likely to retain the title.

Forts of Sveaborg.

The fortress of Sveaborg, the cause of great grief to the Swedes, and the principal trophy of the Russians, is not more than two miles to the south of Helsingfors. This model of modern military architecture is formed by seven islands, which command a large harbour. *Lang-œ*,[e] or the nearest island to Helsingfors, *Wester-Svartœ*[f] and Bakholm or the rock of the watch tower are the three in which the houses of the garrison have been built. *Lilla Oester Svartœ*[g] contains an arsenal of artillery, and between it and *Stora-Oester-Svartœ*[h] is the station of all the gallies. The residence of the governor, and the principal magazines are situated in *Warg-œ*,[i] and the gallies and war-ships are repaired in its two basins. The citadel is erected on *Gustafs Svoerd*,[k] or the sword of Gustavus, which is united to *Wargœ* by a bridge, it possesses a reservoir of fresh water, an advantage that is not to be found in the other islands. Skantzland is an eighth island, but its fortifications are not complete, and from its position on the south of *Gustafs Svoerd*, it is the only place from which an enemy might attack the citadel, or, according to some authors, bombard it. This defect may soon be remedied by the Russians. The fortifications of Sveaborg are on a large scale;

[e] The Long Island.
[f] The Black Island on the West.
[g] The Small Black Island on the East.
[h] The Large Black Island on the East.
[i] Wolf's Island.
[k] The island of redoubts.

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some of the ramparts are cut in the solid rock, and formed by a mass of stone about 48 or 50 feet in height, all of them are covered with gazon, and they are thus less likely to be injured by ricochet firing and the bursting of bombs. Many English travellers have admired the Roman grandeur of these works; yet the Gibraltar of Finland was entered and taken without resistance. A few bombs were discharged from batteries of ice collected on the Frozen sea, and the governor surrendered. True therefore is the old Lacedemonian adage—"the best ramparts are the hearts of the citizens."

Finland Proper.

Finland Proper or the province of Abo forms the south-west portion of the principality, which was subdued and civilized by the Swedes before the rest of the country was conquered. It is probably on that account that the population is more concentrated than in any other province, and the system of husbandry, the best in Finland.

Towns.

Abo, the ancient Finnic *Turcou* is situated on the banks of the *Aura*, which issues from lake *Pyha*. The town, though no longer the capital, is one of the most agreeable in Finland, the inhabitants are industrious, although they derive little advantage from their proximity to Sweden. The university was founded by queen Christina in 1640, the climate is not genial, the endowments are trifling, still the college enjoys no mean reputation. Amongst its distinguished students, were Gadolin the chymist, Franzen the poet, and the erudite bishop of Porfham, who, in a series of dissertations, has thrown more light than any other author, on the history of Finland. The population amounts to 12,000 souls, the trade is considerable, and the inhabitants have docks and sugar houses, silk and woollen manufactories. *Aboslat* or the citadel of Abo, which might maintain a siege for some weeks, is about an English mile to the south-west of the town. The numerous islands in the Archipelago of Abo have been remarked on account of the varied scenery which the stranger observes almost at every fifty yards. *Runsala*, which is covered with oak and nut trees, may vie in that respect with any English or Chinese garden.

Nystad is a maritime town with a convenient harbour, its exports are corn, timber and sail cloth; some of the inhabitants are employed in manufacturing wool. *Raumo* is situated in the district of *Satacunda*, and its lace is supposed to be better than any other made in Finland. The trade of *Biærneborg*, another town in the same part of the country, might be greatly improved, if the *Kumo*, which issues from Tavastland, could be rendered navigable. A pearl fishery has been established at *Sastmola*, near the northern limit of lower Satacunda; three or four pearls are sometimes, though not often, found in the same shell.

Islands, Aland.

The small Archipelago which fronts Abo, forms the most western part of the Russian empire, and it is separated from Sweden by the strait of *Alands-Haf*. The largest islands are *Aland*, *Lemland*, *Kumlinge*, *Wardœ*, *Brandœ* and *Lumparland* on the east, and *Ekerœ* on the west. The whole group encloses an extent of 11000 Swedish square miles,[1] and the inhabitants may amount to 13,000. The hills on the islands are chiefly composed of coarse red granite; lime however is not uncommon, and one quarry is at present worked. The climate is not cold, and many of the islanders are good husbandmen. The common crops are secale and barley, and the average return is as eight to one. The forests consist of birch, alder and fir trees, which are exported every year to Stockholm. Six hundred and eighty species are enumerated in the flora of these islands, and the cryptogamia are not fewer than one hundred and eighty. The cheese of Aland is exported into different countries from a small group of islands, that form the parish of *Fulgœ*. The sea-dog fisheries are very variable, in some seasons they are productive, in others few are taken, and the poorer classes are then deprived of their ordinary food. There are not many quadrupeds, the elk and the bear are never seen, the wolf is perhaps the most common. The rocks on the large islands are sometimes covered with sea fowl, a great many of them are sold

[1] The Swedish mile is equal to 4 $\frac{1}{6}$ English miles.

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in the neighbouring continent, and high prices are given for their eggs and plumage. The capital of Sweden is supplied with fish from the Archipelago, and 6000 tons of herrings are salted every year on the different islands. The mariners sail between Sweden and Finland, and their clean and well-furnished villages are an undoubted proof of their comparative affluence. The Swedish language is spoken, and the manners and customs of the inhabitants are little different from those in the same country. The islands of Aland formed a small Scandinavian kingdom long before the Swedish conquest of Finland, but the name of the village Iomala might lead us to believe the existence of a Finnic population at a very remote period.

Ostrobothnia.

While we ascend the Bothnian gulf, we observe the plains of Ostrobothnia, the low land or the Finnic *Kainu-Ma*, of which the interior is not unlike the northern part of Savolax and Tavastland. The wolf and the bear haunt immense forests, or wander near innumerable lakes.

Wasa.

Grain ripens rapidly in the south or in the district of Wasa, and a great part of the produce is exported. The other exports are iron, cheese and tar of a much better quality than the Ulean. The *Kyro-Ioki* is the largest river in the province, and the principal towns are Christinastadt, Kaskae, Wasa, which was founded by Charles the Ninth, Carleby and Jacobstadt; the two last are peopled by hardy mariners.

The northern part of Ostrobothnia forms the ancient prefecture or the present department of *Uleaborg*. The short and cold summers in that region are owing to the vicinity of the polar circle, to a northern exposure and a humid soil. Good harvests are rare, the seed cannot be put into the ground before the end of *May* or beginning of June, otherwise it might be destroyed by morning frosts. Trees are burnt and reduced to ashes on the fields, and by this method abundant crops are raised. The cattle, although of a small breed, yield more butter and cheese than the inhabitants can consume. Forests, marshes and moss-grown rocks cover the greater part of the coun-

try. Tar is obtained in different districts, thus the town of Uleaborg exports from 27,000 to 29,000 tons every year, and no fewer than 2,160,000 fir trees are necessary in the making of that quantity. We are thus enabled to form some notion of the extent of the forests. The woods abound in squirrels, and the peasants kill them by means of dogs trained for the purpose. When the goods of a father are divided among his children, a well-trained dog is considered as valuable as a good milch cow. The cataracts of *Pyha-Kosky* and *Taival Kosky* form the finest landscapes in the country.[m] The stranger looks in vain for the genial climate of the south, but the further he advances northwards, the fruits on the shrubs become more fragrant and aromatick.

Towns.

The town of Uleaborg, one of the wealthiest in Finland, contains 4000 souls; the people work in the manufactories or dock yards, and export tar, butter and salmon. *Brahestadt* derives its name from the Count of Brahe, the great benefactor of Finland. The towns are peopled by Swedes, and the country by Finns; the inhabitants of the former are polished and hospitable, their amusements serve to dispel the gloom of a winter that lasts nine months. The higher part of the river Ulea is little known, and the traveller who repairs to that region, might visit the large basin of the Ulean lake, where a number of others extend both from north and south-east, and are united by rivers, which fall in cascades through thick forests. Some isolated farms, distant about thirty or forty miles from each other, are scattered in these deserts. The castle of *Hysis* is situated in the parish of Paldamo, which is more than 200 miles in length. A solid rock was cut and changed into a fortress; its ruins and gigantic staircase remind us of the chivalrous times and the age of romance.

Castle of Hysis.

Inhabitants.

The inhabitants of Ostrobothnia are frank, hospitable and industrious. Some of the young women make before their marriage, a sufficient quantity of clothes to last them

[m] Koski is a Finnic word which signifies a cataract.

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a lifetime. It may therefore be naturally inferred that the fashions of the country are not subject to much variation. The Ostrobothnians are said to be the best builders of small vessels in Sweden, they used formerly to travel to different towns in which they were employed as shipwrights. The people in the interior are of Finnic origin, and those on the coast speak the Swedish dialect. The governor of Uleaborg extends his sway over a part of Lapland, and by the efforts of Finnic husbandmen, agriculture is now extended in his province, as on the coasts of Norwegian Lapland, beyond the polar circle. The wandering Laplanders seldom appear in the colony, but the rein deer has multiplied on the hills of Manselka or inland Ostrobothnia, where flocks of these animals find the moss necessary for their subsistence. It happens sometimes that the peasants of Uleaborg cannot obtain enough of flour for their own consumption, and the poorest eat bread made from the bark of trees.

Finlanders.

The great dutchy of Finland, which we have endeavoured to describe, was not the country of the Fenni, whom Tacitus mentions, or to speak more correctly, the information that the Roman historian received, did not relate to a separate country, but to a distinct people. The *Phinni* and the *Zoumi* or *Suomes* are vaguely placed by Strabo and Ptolemy in Pannonia. Jornandes wrote several ages afterwards, and although he gives an account of the *Finni* and their different tribes, it is difficult to discover what region they inhabited. They resided beyond *Scanzia*, but the historian of the Goths says nothing concerning the eastern limits of that country. The *Estes* of Jornandes and Other, were probably of Finnic origin, although they dwelt far to the south of the present Esthonia. It is certain that Finnic nations migrated to the north, but the cause of their migrations is now unknown. The learned Thunmann has shown that some Finns remained in eastern Prussia so late as the year 1259;[n] yet no mention is made

[n] Thunmann, Recherches sur les peuples du Nord, 18, 23.

of the time that the first Finns entered Finland. Three nations, the *Quaines* on the north, the *Kyriales* on the south-east, and the *Ymes* or *Iemes* on the south-west, inhabited that country in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth centuries. It may be inferred from the names of different places in the eastern districts, that the shepherds of Lapland wandered among these settled tribes.[o] The Quaines, who are frequently mentioned by the Icelandic writers, called themselves *Kainu-Lainen* or inhabitants of the low country, and were termed *Cayani* by the modern Latinists. The same people inhabited Ostrobothnia, settled in Lapland and on the shores of the White Sea, which derived from them the name of *Quen-Sea* or *Quen-Vik*. The Quaines submitted to kings or warlike chiefs, who made war against the Norwegians, when the latter established themselves in Helsingland and Westrobothnia, and when they pillaged the coasts of the White Sea. It is probable that a branch of the same tribe advanced to Kiow in the south of Russia, at all events that place is often called *Koenugard* or the town of the Kaines by the Icelandic historians; but it is not impossible that the last name may have been common to another Finnic tribe. Ostrobothnia is still called *Kainu* or *Kainu-ma* by the Finlanders. *Adamus Bremensis* happened to be present at a conversation in which king Swenon spoke of *Quen-Land* or *Quena-Land*, the country of the Quaines, but as the stranger's knowledge of Danish was very imperfect, he supposed the king had said Quinnaland, the country of women or Amazons; hence the origin of his *Terra Feminarum*.[p]

The *Ymes* or Iemes took the Finnic name of *Heima-Lainen*, they inhabited Tavastland, Nyland and Finland Ymes.

[o] Gerschau maintains in his history of Finland, (1810) that the Laplanders only were called *Finns*, and that they were driven from the country by the *Quaines*, the *Ymes* and *Kyriales*, whom he includes under the name of *Tchoudes*. His hypothesis is perhaps taken from the work of *Lehrberg*, which I have not hitherto been able to consult.

[p] The history of Norway by Torfæus from the *Eigla*, an Icelandic work. Schæning's Ancient Geography of Norway, 28, 30. Gaiterer's Historical Library, V. 317, 329.

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Proper; it is likely too that their colonists settled in Swedish Nordland.

Kyriales.

The Kyriales or Carelians possessed all the countries on the north of lakes Ladoga and Onega from the gulf of Finland to the White Sea. The commercial republick of Novgorod, and the warlike Swedes contended from the year 1156 to 1293, for the preponderance over these simple and rude people, who seldom cultivated their fields, and subsisted by hunting, fishing and rearing cattle. The heads of families exercised a despotic authority, and the women were treated as slaves. The Finns were then ignorant of that imperfect system of husbandry which has been continued amongst them to the present day. They practised however, some mechanical arts, and among others, that of working metals; they had names for silver, iron and copper, and according to a popular tradition, the most ancient mines in Scandinavia were discovered by the Finns.

Mythology.

The mythology of the Finlanders was connected with the religious notions of the Laplanders and Biarmians; but their traditions were not collected before many of the inhabitants had been converted or at least baptized by catholic missionaries. The Supreme Being was *Rawa* or the *old*, his name recalls the *Radien* of the Laplanders. It cannot be determined if there was any affinity between that divinity and the good and evil principles, or the *Joumala* and *Perkel*. Two sons of Rawa act a conspicuous part. *Wainamoinen* created fire, invented the *kandela* or Findic lyre, built the first ship, and taught men almost all the arts of civilization. *Ilmarainen* reigns in the air and on the winds; to him men are indebted for the forge, he assists his brother in all his contests against the wicked genii. *Veden Ema* or the mother of the waters was adored by the Esthonians, and *Sakamieli* or the goddess of love was not unknown to the Laplanders. The natives of Tavastland, a branch of the Ymis, worshipped *Turris*, the god of war, a divinity that has been confounded with the Scandinavian Thor. The name of the former

is derived from a Finnic word, which signifies a battle. The people were hunters, and lived in more southern countries when their mythology flourished. Thus *Tapio* protects bees, cures wounds and tends the flocks; he leads the hunter into the forests, but allows his sister and his wife *Tapiolan-Emenda* to guide her worshippers in the pursuit of wild fowl. It is vain however to attempt to kill a quadruped without imploring the aid of Hysis, a sullen and formidable giant, the destroyer of bears and wolves. The petty gods presided over the meaner game of hares and squirrels. To the different rural divinities of the Carelians were reserved the care of secale, barley and oats, but *Kekki* was the general protector of agriculture. His name signifies a *cuckoo*, and the god might have been so called in allusion to the spring, or the Finnic divinities might have been represented by the figures of animals.

Magic.

Finland was also the country of giants, gnome-like spirits and supernatural beings that frequented the deserts, murmured in the waterfall, raged in the tempest, and illuded the traveller and the hunter by a thousand phantastic forms. Magic was universally believed, it was connected with the worship and manners of the people, but degraded by the low arts and vulgar deceit of the priests or wizards. The ancient traditions have unfortunately been mixed with others of more modern date, little information can therefore be derived from them. Music was a very powerful instrument in the old superstition, by it the sands on the sea shore were changed into diamonds, the corn danced into the barn-yard, trees moved in harmony, and bears listened to the notes of Wainamoinen's lyre. The divine minstrel, impelled within the vortex of his magic, fell into ecstasies, and shed a fountain of pearls, not a flood of tears.[q] It is certainly not a little extraordinary that the attributes of an Orpheus or an Amphion can be found in such a country as Finland. We shall not inquire whether the Finns inhabited formerly a region on the banks

Finnic Orpheus.

[q] Schroter on the Runic characters of the Finns.

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of the Tanais, not so far distant from Greece; but their present country, though very different, might impress the mind with strong emotions. The roaring cataract, the calm lake and the rugged rock were the *pyha* or holy places in which their ancestors worshipped. The hell of the Finns, like that of the Irish, was situated in their native soil. According to the national songs, the souls of wicked men were sent to *Hippumaiki*, a place on the banks of the Kemi, where a large stone with excavations in the centre, was often stained with the blood of victims. The priests only were permitted to approach it.[r]

Finnic language.

The Finnic language is perhaps the most sonorous and best adapted for poetry of any in Europe. It is not unlike the Hungarian, all the words terminate in vowels, and two consonants rarely follow each other. The letters *b*, *d*, *f* and *g* form no part of their alphabet, but some foreign words have been introduced, in which the three last consonants are used. Michael Agricola, bishop of Abo, was the first foreigner who wrote in Finnic; he published his translation of the Scriptures in 1558.

Dialects.

Three dialects, those of Carelia or Savolax, Ostrobothnia and Finland proper, are still spoken in the country. They correspond with the three tribes, or the Kyriales, Quaines and Ymes. The Esthonians and Finlanders can understand each other.

Runic characters.

It is very unlikely that any information can be gained concerning the origin of the Runic characters used by the Finns. How could it be determined that these characters were communicated to the Goths of Scandinavia, or that the letters of the one and the other people had a common origin during the age of Wodinism, in a period anterior to the vulgar era? It might not, however, be difficult to show that the Finns, the Wendes, the Anglo-Saxons and Scandinavians were accustomed to write on the ground with a spear or sharp-pointed instrument.[s]

Character.

The present Finlanders are grave, but intrepid and indefatigable. They can endure the severest privations, but

[r] Rubs, XVI. [s] Runa signifies a javelin in ancient Latin.

their perseverance is little removed from obstinacy. Their attachment to their national name, customs and language, rendered them incapable of appreciating the blessings of civilization, which the Swedes were anxious to diffuse amongst them. Their signal ingratitude to Gustavus the Third, is no very favourable trait in their character. Had the Finlanders not been guilty of treason, that king might have made himself master of Petersburg. Although the people may submit to Russians rather than to Swedes, they are aware that independence is infinitely preferable to the domination of the czar; at present, however, they must remain satisfied with the forms of a national government. Russia and the great dutchy have been declared two distinct but inseparable states, terms of ordinary occurrence in diplomatic logic, though wholly unintelligible when applied to history or geography. All the offices are held by Finlanders. The senate regulates the affairs of the community, and presides over the administration of justice. Swedish laws are still in force, and the national representation is the same as in Sweden. The diets of Finland were sanctioned by the presence of the Emperor Alexander.

Government.

The civil rights of the peasantry are as much protected as in any province of Sweden; if their freedom has in some districts degenerated into licentiousness, it may be attributed to the nature of the country and the habits of the people.

Public instruction was neglected before the time of Gustavus the Third. The Swedes are better informed than the inhabitants of most countries in Europe, but as they spoke a different language, it was impossible for them to communicate their knowledge to the Finlanders. But public schools have been established for the last twenty years in Finland, and they have every year been more numerously attended. Many books are circulated, and wherever Swedes and Finlanders make up the population, sermons are alternately preached in the two languages. A

Schools.

BOOK CVII. Lutheran archbishop is primate of Finland, and the Greek priests make no proselytes.

If avarice and selfishness be the vices of the people on the southern coasts, if they have contracted habits of mercantile chicane, it must be admitted that the other inhabitants are charitable and addicted to hospitality. All the Finlanders, it is said, are revengeful and implacable in their resentments, an accusation which is unfortunately strengthened by the crimes and murders committed in the rural districts; still some allowance must be made for the animosity and mutual jealousy that subsists between the Finnic peasantry and the Swedish husbandmen.

Poetry and music. Almost every Finlander is a poet or musician. A cottage surrounded by forests or marshes in the interior of the country, is often the residence of a bard, whose rustic and simple songs enliven all the villagers. The polished odes of our academic poets are far inferior in point of genius and originality to the effusions of these minstrels. Their poetry is sung to the accompaniment of the *kandela* or lyre, and it is an important rule in Finnic versification, that most of the words in a line commence with the same letter, a sort of caprice, which is not unknown in other languages, for example the Scandinavian and ancient Latin.[t]

Habitations. The peasants reside in cottages or *poertes*, that are not divided into apartments, and the wretched hut is warmed by a large stove fixed to the wall. The smoke issues by an aperture in the roof, or by the doors and windows. They are illumined during the long nights of winter by splinters of fir smeared in pitch. It is wonderful that the people can contrive to keep their clothes and linen so clean in these dark and smoky dwellings.

Vapour baths. Vapour baths are used by all the Finlanders, and it is evidently from the Finns settled formerly in central Russia that the same custom was communicated to the Slavonians. The baths are not spacious, several steps are heated from 130° to 160°

[t] *Noctis* et *nimbum* occæcat *nigror*. (Ennius.)
Ducite ab urbe *domum*, mea carmina, *ducite Daphnim*. (Virgil.)

of Fahrenheit, and by pouring boiling water on red-hot stones, the place is soon filled with vapour. The bather descends from step to step, and is in a short time covered with a profuse perspiration; he then washes himself in tepid water, and the office of drying and rubbing his body is always reserved for the women. The Finlander, before he puts on his clothes, rolls in winter on the snow, and in summer on the grass.

BOOK CVIII.

EUROPE.

European Russia. Fourth Section. Description of the provinces on the Baltic, continued and concluded.

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Gulf of Finland.

One of the most remarkable combinations in the physical geography of Europe, has been observed in the south of Finland. The lake Onega approaches the White Sea, and passes by the *Swir* into the great lake Ladoga, which flows through the large Neva into the long and narrow gulf of Finland. If the level of the gulf were 600 feet higher, it might cover the whole country between it and the lake Onega; nay more, if we judge from the apparent elevation of the heights in the two basins, it might join the White Sea. The rocks on the gulf are mixed with shells, or composed of compact limestone; the same substance is common in Ingria, and forms partly the basins of the Ladoga and Onega, but granite peaks rise in most places through the calcareous mass. The water is brackish and not very deep; it is shallow near the sloping heights on the southern coasts, and the central current is marked by a great many light-houses. The eastern extremity of the gulf forms the bay of Cronstadt, which might be more correctly termed the embouchure of the Neva. The water is fresh and drinkable at Cronstadt; it flows in calm weather westwards, or in the same direction as the river; its course, however, is often obstructed by reeds and sand. The navigable current terminates at the depth

of two fathoms; large merchantmen have lighters, and ships of war never issue from the docks of Petersburg without floating butts. The mass of waters in the gulf is often impelled into the bay of Cronstadt by a tempestuous west wind. The Neva having on these occasions no outlet, recoils on the quays or streets of Petersburg, and rises to the first stories of the houses. Ships are sometimes thrown into the town, and casks of sugar, pipes of wine, books and furniture float in confusion. The billows have entered the marble staircase of the imperial palace, and the czar and his generals have sailed in boats through the streets, and rescued citizens from a watery grave. The breadth of the Neva varies from five hundred to eight hundred yards; its limpid waters never freeze before the 29th of October, and the ice is never melted before the 25th of March. The lake *Ladoga* is surrounded on the north by calcareous rocks that contain quarries of fine marble, the banks in other places are low and sandy. The bed consists chiefly of gravel; the water is clear and abounds in fish. The lake is covered every year with a thick crust of ice, and it is then that the labours of the fishermen are most successful. There are more inequalities on the banks of the Onega, but in other respects its physical character is the same. The streams of its feeders fall in cataracts, or wind slowly through heaths and barren land.

Inundations of the Neva.

Lake Ladoga.

Lake Onega.

The province of Ingria or Ingermanland derives its name from the small river Ischora, which is called Inger by the Swedes. The country was ceded to Russia in 1721, and it now forms the greater part of the government of Petersburg. The districts on the west included the former Iama, and the *Votes*, a Finnic tribe, peopled the western banks of the Ladoga. The Ischores, another branch of the Finns, still inhabit the country on the south of the Neva. The province is low, and almost wholly covered with woods or marshes. The soil is sterile, cold and humid. Indeed, with the exception of a few country seats, some gardens and lands attached to government manufactories, the face of nature indicates poverty, wretchedness and want. Rye

Ingria.

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is raised wish difficulty, cherries are confined to a few gardens, and bees are so seldom seen that a hive is considered a great rarity; but fruit-bearing shrubs, wild fowl and different kinds of fish are very common.

Climate, seasons.

Many valuable observations have been made on the climate. An ordinary year may be divided into 162 days of winter or continued frost, 59 of spring, (in that season the mornings and evenings are frosty) and 144 of summer or fresh weather. The mean *maximum* of cold in a period of seventeen years was equal to 22° below zero of Fahrenheit, and on the 9th of February 1810, the thermometer descended so low as 35° 30′ on the same scale. The heat of summer is occasionally as high as 92°. Frost begins commonly about the 27th of September, and continues to the same time in April. The greatest degree of cold in the year 1791 did not exceed 173° of Delisle;[a] the number of frosty days was not greater than 188, and in 99 only the frost continued without interruption. The mean maximum of cold, as indicated by Delisle's thermometer, was equal to 170°[b] during five days, to 160°[c] during forty-four, and to 150°[d] during a hundred and thirty. The highest temperature in the summer of the same year was greater than 110° of Delisle,[e] and according to the mean result of different observations, it remained thirty-one days about 120,[f] seventy-seven above 130°,[g] and fifty-four at 140°.[h] Lastly, it varied in a period of 101 days, between 140° and 150° or the point of congelation. It may be easily believed that the year in which these observations were made, was unusually mild. The winter lasts eight months in ordinary seasons, and in the remaining four the weather is variable. It appears from a calculation of the great Euler, that there are always sixty days in the year in which snow or rain never falls at Petersburg. If, says M. Pallas,

[a] A hundred and seventy-three degrees of Delisle's thermometer are equal to 4° 24′ of Fahrenheit.

[b] 8° of Fahrenheit. [c] 20° of Fahrenheit. [d] 32° of Fahrenheit.

[e] 80° of Fahrenheit. [f] 68° of Fahrenheit.

[g] Above 56° of Fahrenheit. [h] 44° of Fahrenheit.

the pear and plum trees be grafted, they perish in winter, and biennial plants rarely resist the cold. The country is often obscured with fogs; it abounds in musquitoes, and is colder than the province of Drontheim in northern Norway at the parallel of 63°.

Petersburg.

The new capital of Russia was founded by Peter the Great in this unhealthy region, on a shallow port, which is frozen three or four months in the year, near marshes covered with ice, and islands exposed to inundations. It was the monarch's first design to make Petersburg a military harbour and an arsenal. The small fortress of *Nyenschantz* had been built in the year 1300, at a short distance from it, on the higher banks of the Neva. It was taken in 1703 by Peter the First, who determined to change it into a place of defence against Sweden. It was not long, however, before he altered his purpose, or imagined that he had discovered the best station for the fleet which was to be established on the Baltic, and the most advantageous port for the foreign trade of Russia. So extravagant were his notions on this subject, that the seat of government was transferred thither in 1721. It would have been difficult at that time to have found a place in the whole of inhabited Russia, worse adapted for the capital. The czar did not perhaps expect to make himself master of Riga, otherwise it might have been chosen for a commercial port, and it was probably the desire of opening a prompt communication between the Neva and the interior by the canal of Nista and the Wolchowa, that induced him to undertake his great work. We differ from the admirers of that prince, because it was easy to have found on the banks of the Neva, a site better fitted for a town than a marsh, where the houses rest on piles, which may one day give way under the costly fabrics that they now support. The nobles refused at first to reside in a city that appeared to them a place of exile; but, Peter *wished* it, and his energy enabled him to triumph over nature and the opposition of the nation. Petersburg was built, and although on an unfavourable po-

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sition, it is now one of the most magnificent capitals in Europe; it is certainly the most remarkable on account of the number of its edifices, the size of its squares, the breadth of the streets, and the waters by which the heterogeneous mass is divided. The hexagonal citadel stands on the *island of Petersburg*, it is a fortress wholly useless as a place of defence, but it might contain a revolted multitude. The cathedral church of St. Peter and St. Paul, where the emperors are interred, the small wooden house in which Peter the First resided, when he laid the foundation of the town, the botanical garden and the medical college are situated in the same quarter, which is cut into several islands, and the houses are the worst built of any in Petersburg. The *Wasili Ostrow* or the *island of Basil* on the west, is much larger; it was there that Peter the Great wished to found the town, and that the first houses were erected; its present inhabitants are mostly mariners and merchants. It consists of twelve long, broad and straight streets, which are called *Lines*, and the finest buildings are the custom house, the treasury, the flax warehouse, the *twelve colleges* or ministerial departments, the seminary of the marine cadets, the university, the observatory, and lastly, the academy of arts, of which we shall afterwards speak more fully. The harbour of the gallies is built at the extremity of the island. The quarter of the admiralty, or the residence of the court, the nobility and ambassadors, is the finest in Petersburg. It is an island which lies to the south of the two former, is surrounded by the Neva and Fontanka, and divided into three parts by the Moika and Catherine's canal. The principal ornaments are the admiralty, the equestrian statue of Peter the First, the palace of winter, the hermitage, the palace and gardens of summer, and the costly churches of Isaac and the virgin of Casan. The last edifice adorns the street of the Neva, which is seven versts in length.[1] The surface of Petersburg is not less than seventy-four square

Different quarters.

[1] Two miles and a half.

versts,[k] but the buildings do not cover the thirteenth part of that space. There are six large and twenty-four small bridges, and the whole town consists of eleven quarters, thirty-five districts, 400 public buildings, 9000 houses, and 300,000 inhabitants.[l] It may be remarked that the population of Petersburg is distinguished from that of the other European capitals, by the extreme disproportion in the numbers of the two sexes. All the inhabitants amounted in 1813 to 285,500, and they consisted of 197,994 males, and 87,506 females. A garrison of forty or fifty thousand men, and a number of strangers equal to 36,000, are not sufficient to account for so great a disparity, more particularly as many individuals among the last class are married and settled in the town. There are at present at Petersburg 25,000 Germans, 3000 French, 1500 Swedes and 1000 English. Sermons are preached in fifteen languages. The Catholics are more numerous than the Lutherans, but the latter are at least equal to 20,000 individuals.

Population.

It has been maintained that the city of Peter the Great is not inferior to any in Europe, and the same place has been considered a confused assemblage of gaudy and inelegant monuments. We shall try to discover what is true in these conflicting opinions. Several edifices are built according to the modern Italian style, modified by the caprice of different sovereigns, and their numerous defects may be attributed to these two causes.

Architecture.

The palace of winter is a very large building that communicates with the hermitage, the favourite residence of Catherine, which joins the theatre. So great a mass of contiguous buildings on the banks of a river, produces a fine effect. The architecture of the *marble palace* sets all rules at defiance. The spectator observes many pillars and pilasters almost touching each other, of the same proportions, but of different orders, windows of unequal depth

[k] Thirty-two square miles.

[l] The number of houses is underrated; according to the statement in the text, there must be on an average more than thirty-three persons in each house.

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in the same hall, varying sometimes from five to nine feet. Marble, bronze, copper and iron are lavished in every direction, and the furniture is costly and of rare workmanship. The ancient palace of summer is built of wood on a pleasant situation; the new one is constructed of bricks after the Dutch fashion. The garden of the same name is only remarkable on account of its granite colonnade, for although the statues *made in Italy*, are according to the German writers, masterpieces of modern art, they are in the opinion of M. Fortia, below mediocrity. The academy of the fine arts was for a long time the only building admired by every stranger that visited Petersburg; but the churches of *Isaac* and Casan are of a later date, and not inferior to any in that style of architecture, which is approved in places of Christian worship, and sanctioned by the customs of the Greek church. Twenty-six millions of roubles were expended on the first temple, which is wholly composed of marble; the second is an imitation of St. Peter's at Rome, and its peristyle is partly formed by fifty-six granite pillars. The equestrian statue of Peter the Great by Falconet, is placed at the entrance of the bridge across the Neva, on the side of the admiralty. The horse in this statue, as in many others of the same kind, is considered the finest part of the work. The Russian hero is supposed to have reached the summit of a rock, which is represented by an immense block of granite, that was found in a marsh about fifteen miles from Petersburg. It weighed upwards of 1336 tons, but it has been cut and polished, and the effect which so novel a pedestal might have otherwise produced, is totally destroyed. The treasury and many other buildings are admirable examples of that rustic but singularly varied style, that prevails in the ludicrous *propylæa* of the French capital. The Russians may boast of Petersburg, the Parisians may extol Paris, but it is difficult to determine whether judges of classical architecture could find more to reprehend on the banks of the Neva, than on the banks of the Seine. The breadth of the streets, the solidity of quays built of granite, the

Statue of Peter the Great.

profusion of porphyry and precious marble, and above all, the cheerful spectacle of a fine river and an extensive commerce are the greatest ornaments in the city of Peter the Great.

Trade of Petersburg.

Four fifths of the Russian trade are concentrated in Petersburg; its imports have amounted of late years from a hundred and twenty to a hundred and thirty millions of roubles; its exports have not increased in the same proportion. The inhabitants are making rapid advances in the arts; manufactories of tapestry, gilded bronze, porcelain, glass and crystal, are supported by the luxury of the court. The working of jewellery is carried to great perfection; the natives excel in that and other branches of industry. Communications are sent to Petersburg from most of the scientific or learned institutions in Europe; many societies have been established, among others an academy of sciences, to which almost all the contributions have hitherto been written by Germans. Much has been done for the promotion of knowledge; many valuable libraries are now collected, and in no other town are there so many or so rare Chinese, Japanese and Mongol books. Theatres, assemblies, public walks and gardens connect the amusements of Petersburg with those of the other European capitals, but the only diversions for which the climate is well adapted, are sledge races and real *Russian mountains*, not of wood but of ice. All the pleasures and refinements of civilization have been introduced, but there is no place on the continent where the expense of living is so great.[m]

Neighbourhood of Petersburg.

Palaces.

Country houses and vegetable gardens, cultivated by the industrious peasants of Rostow, are gradually becoming more numerous in the neighbourhood of the town. *Czarskoe-Selo*, an imperial castle, is differently described by Russian and French travellers; the former consider it another Versailles, the latter a model of barbaric art, both

[m] Description of Petersburg by Georgi, Storch, and Reimer. Picture of St. Petersburg by Muller. Bagatelles by Fabri.

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these opinions are not incompatible. If we may judge of it from engravings, it appears to be an imitation of the ancient architecture that prevailed in France. Peterhof is surrounded by extensive gardens, fine streams and fountains, and near it is the Dutch house of Peter the Great.

Cronstadt.

Cronstadt, one of the fortified towns in Ingria, is situated on the island of *Kodloi-Ostrow*,[n] its population exceeds 30,000 souls, it possesses three ports and a convenient road, where large merchant vessels anchor, and their cargoes are forwarded to Petersburg in lighters. The same place is also a station for a division of the Baltic fleet; its fortress and the small fort of *Cronslot* guard the entrance of the gulf and the approach to the capital, which is not more than 47 versts or 31 miles distant from Cronstadt. *Schlusselburg*, a small fortress on the place where the Neva issues from the lake Ladoga, has been changed into a state prison, and it was the place where the unfortunate Ivan III. was confined and ended his days. *Gatschina*, a manufacturing town of seven thousand souls, is built on an imperial domain.

Narva.

The town of Narva, though situated in Esthonia, forms a part of the government of Petersburg. It was erected or fortified in 1223 by Valdemar the Second of Denmark, and became in time a Hanseatic town; the Germans still make up the greater number of its four thousand inhabitants. We observe there the Gothic architecture of the ancient German towns, and the ancient simplicity of the German manners. The burgesses were led into captivity by Peter the First in 1704, but they returned in 1718, when the most of their privileges were restored. The *Narowa* falls from the height of 12 feet at a short distance from Narva, and the cascade contrasts well with the flat and level country on every side.[o]

German provinces.

We have now to give an account of three provinces, which form physically and historically, as well as by the

[n] *Retu-Sari* is the Finnic name of the island.

[o] Herbinius de Cataractis, p. 253.

moral and political condition of their inhabitants, a distinct section from the Russian empire. Esthonia, Livonia and Courland are commonly called the German provinces. They were inhabited in the middle ages by Finnic nations or the Ehstes, the Lives and Krewines, and also by Wendo-Lettones or the Lettones proper, the Koures and Semigalles. The difference in their origin was the cause of perpetual contention between these weak tribes. It may be shown from their history that the Ehstes were united by a sort of confederacy, of which the councils were held at *Rougala*. The union was formed by the inhabitants of *Ungannia*, *Murumgonda*, *Saccala*, *Alentaken*,[p] *Wirria*,[q] *Harria*, *Joervi*,[r] *Lappigunda* and *Rotalo*. The population of each district marched to the common defence of the frontiers, under the command of a *wana* or ancient; they were armed with clubs, swords and wooden bucklers. The Lives did not enter into a similar confederacy, and the Lettones invaded their country. The Koures or masters of maritime Courland, and of the islands Oesel and Dago, often pillaged the coasts of Scandinavia; and while the tribes were contending with each other, a career of enterprise and adventure was opened for neighbouring states.

Inhabitants.

These provinces have been successively subdued by five nations; their colonies are more or less numerous according to the time that the different conquerors were in possession of the country. But all the Russians, Poles, Danes and Swedes do not form a population equal to that of the Germans. The trading or commercial classes migrated from the Hanseatic towns, and the nobles or lords of the rural domains came originally from Westphalia and northern Germany. These nobles are, in their own estimation, far superior to the Russians, whom they have been compelled to admit into their order. It is for these reasons that all the free inhabitants are called *Deutsche* or Germans, while the peasants, who were lately slaves, are still *Un-Deutsche* or not Germans. These singular denominations took their rise in the time of the Teutonic knights.

Successive inhabitants.

[p] Low country. [q] The country of trees. [r] The country of lakes.

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Bremish expeditions.

The traders in the dutchy of Bremen, were the first who obtained any accurate information concerning Livonia. A Bremish vessel which sailed in 1158 for Wisby, a town in the island of Gothland, was driven by a tempest into the gulf of Riga, near the embouchure of the Dwina. The country was then inhabited by Lives, a rude people, with whom the strangers began to traffick. A Bremish colony settled afterwards amongst them, and founded the present town of Riga. The gospel was first preached to the natives by a missionary from Holstein about the year 1186. It cannot, on the other hand, be denied that these regions were visited by the Danes before the period last mentioned, or that they were known at an earlier age to the Scandinavian pirates by the names of *Austur-Rike*, and *Austurveg*.[a] The natives were sometimes termed *Grikia* or Greeks from the Russians of the Greek church, who began betimes to conquer the country, and exact tribute. It may be naturally inferred from the proximity of the Swedes, that they must have been among the first to extend their dominions in the same direction. But the most ancient document is a letter of Erik, king of Denmark, dated 1093, and still preserved in the archives of the Esthonian nobility. Canute the Sixth having subdued the Pomeranian Wendes, planned an expedition against Esthonia in the year 1196. The Archbishop *Absalon*, the great general of the army, gave his name to the town of *Habsal*, but the monarch conquered only the islands and part of the coast. Waldemar the Second or the Victorious, the brother and successor of the last prince, determined to connect these conquests with others made in Pomerania, and his ambitious projects were sanctified by the laudable pretext of converting the Livonians. The Pope sent him the famous *Danebrog*, a red and white banner, which became in time the palladium of Denmark, and the king undertook the crusade. The Danish army was tran-

Scandinavians.

[a] Austur-Rike means the kingdom of the east, and Austurveg a road into the east.

sported in a fleet of 1400 ships, of which the largest held a hundred and twenty, and the smallest fourteen soldiers. The battle of Wolmar was gained in 1220, and the whole of Livonia submitted to the victor, who baptized the inhabitants against their will. Prussia was afterwards converted in the same manner. Waldemar founded Narva, Revel and other towns; but the conquered countries recovered their liberty during his captivity from the year 1227 to 1230. The Danes retained however part of their possessions, the towns in Esthonia remained faithful, and the island of Oesel, their last settlement, was not ceded to Sweden before 1625.

Crusades on the Baltic.

While the Danes and Germans were subduing these barbarians, or converting them by force, the *Order of the Knights of Christ*[t] was instituted, a society of which the members adopted at first the same regulations as the templars, and acknowledged the bishop of Riga as their head. So long as the armies of Waldemar were victorious, the knights were only considered the auxiliaries of the Danes. It is certain, however, that Albert, bishop of Riga, made over to them in 1206, a third part of Livonia, although it did not belong to him; the donation was ratified by the Pope in 1210. Winno, the first great master, styled the knights, the brethren of the sword, a name which was changed into that of *ensiferi* or sword-bearers; they were next denominated the knights of the cross. They entered into a solemn union with the Teutonic Order in 1238, and submitted to all their statutes. Thus historians have often confounded these two societies, both of which transported the spirit and chivalry of the crusades from the banks of the Jordan to the shores of the Baltic. It was then that the sandy plains of Livonia were called Idumea after a country bordering on Palestine.

Order of Knighthood.

The knights conquered Livonia and Courland between the years 1230 and 1240. Waldemar III. ceded to them

[t] The Order was instituted in 1201.

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Esthonia in 1346, and the sovereignty of these states was purchased from the great master of the Teutonic Order by Walther of Plettenberg in 1551. The sword-bearers were, after that contract, included in the number of the imperial states. The reformation introduced much about the same time by Luther, penetrated into Livonia, and the new opinions tended to shake the power of the knights. The czar Iwan Wasiliewitch thought that a favourable opportunity had at last occurred, and he attempted the conquest of the provinces in 1550. The inhabitants of Narva and Revel, unable to resist the Russians, put themselves under the protection of Sweden. Gothard Kettler, the great master, ceded Livonia to the Poles, renounced his title, and became the first Duke of Courland in 1561, after having sworn fealty and homage to Poland. Thus terminated the petty empire founded by the sword-bearers, the men, say the monkish writers, that civilized Esthonia and Livonia, a correct assertion, if civilization is to establish a privileged caste, and to reduce the natives to the most disgraceful slavery.

Swedish wars.

The greatest misfortunes befel these countries after the subjugation of the knights. The spoils were the cause of discord between Muscovy, Sweden and Poland, and a hundred years of war and bloodshed elapsed before Sweden obtained Livonia and Esthonia by the treaty of Oliva in 1660. Courland remained subject to the Poles.

Russian Conquests.

The horrors of war were kindled anew in the 18th century, and the provinces were devastated when the Russians made themselves masters of them by the peace of Neustadt in 1721. The country had been governed sixty-one years by the Swedes, and although Charles XI. humbled the nobles, many of the Swedish laws continued in force; indeed, next to the changes effected by Luther's reformation and the influence of German literature, nothing has contributed so much to form the national character of the nobility, as the political institutions of Sweden. Russia, that had been long the terror of the inhabitants on account of its invasions, has since governed them with much

mildness. The privileges of the aristocracy have been for the most part respected; if the order is not exempt from the military service, that circumstance forms a solitary exception to the general rule. The towns have been enriched by trade, for which their situation is well adapted. The admirable education that the higher classes receive, has opened for them an easy access to the most important offices in the Russian administration and in the different governments. Enlightened by judicious study, protected by Alexander I, the nobles in the three dutchies of Esthonia, Livonia and Courland, have adopted the wisest and most philanthropic measures to bring the peasants from a state of bondage to civil liberty, to the condition of the other inhabitants, and to that moral melioration without which freedom itself must be vain.[u]

Physical Geography.

The soil, the climate and the productions of the three provinces are nearly the same. Esthonia and the north of Livonia may perhaps, on account of their rocks and humidity, be compared to the *section of great lakes*, whilst Courland and the south of Livonia, abounding in sand and argil, resemble in a greater degree the *Sarmatian plains*. The whole country is low, and, to use a geological phrase, of the alluvial formation; many indications prove that it must have been covered at a comparatively recent period with the waters of the ocean. The highest hill, that of *Wesenberg* near the lake of Deven, is said to be 1200 feet, but it is by no means certain that it has been

Hills.

[u] Essai critique sur l'Histoire de la Livonie, &c. &c. par *L. C. D. B.* (the Count of Bray). The above excellent work renders others superfluous, but the different authors who have written on Esthonia and Livonia are mentioned, and their merits appreciated. A few of them may be cited. *Arndt*, Leiflands Chronik (1753) containing the translation of Henry the Letton, 1184—1225. Duisbourg's History of the Teutonic Order to the year 1326. *Russow* and *Kelch*, two able chroniclers. *Hiarn's* History of Esthonia, Livonia and Lettonia. *Fricbe's* Historical Manual, 1793. *Hupel's* Miscellanies of the North, 1781-91. *Merkel's* Ancient Times of Livonia, 1799. Much light has been thrown on the history of these provinces by the discovery of many manuscripts in Konigsberg and Livonia; whatever valuable information they contain, is embodied in the work of M. de Bray.

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accurately measured. *Munna-Meggi* is about 1000, and none of the rest are higher than 500. *Blauberg*, a sacred hill of the Lives, commands an extensive view along the plains of Livonia, but its elevation is not greater than 360 feet above the level of the sea. A few picturesque dales, some grots and waterfalls may be discovered, but the general appearance of the land is that of a monotonous plain or a thick forest. Large beds of limestone, at some depth below the surface of the ground, extend throughout the provinces. The same rocks are seen on the gulfs of Riga and Finland, they are probably connected with those in Gothland near the middle of the Baltic, and also with others in Southern Finland. Blocks of granite are scattered in different parts of the country, and the low coasts form a belt of sand, on which rocks are occasionally observed.

Climate.

The climate is much milder than that of Petersburg or Novgorod, and the thermometer descends rarely so low as 14° of Reaumur, or zero of Fahrenheit; yet the rivers are covered with ice in March and part of April. May is in general a cold month, and sometimes accompanied with frost and snow. The first indications of winter are felt in September, and it is not often that a short summer elapses without chill and humid winds.

Plants.

Pines, firs and birch trees thrive in the marshy forests; the white alder, the maple, the common and mountain ash succeed on the good land; the oak, however, is a rare tree, and the 58th parallel appears to be, in these countries, the natural limit of its growth. Many species of willows are very common;[x] but the linden is confined to Courland, the beech is seldom seen, the hawthorn, the elder, the walnut and chesnut are unknown. Bright flowers are disclosed in the late springs, but the natural grasses on the meadows are coarse and rank, and dismal mosses cover a great part of the plains. The plants which flourish on the marshes and stagnant water, are nearly the same as those in northern Jutland and

[x] De Bray. Essai Historique, II. 320.

Smoland. The *vaccinium oxycoccos* and *myrtillus* abound, strawberries, currants and fruit-bearing shrubs appear in equal profusion, but the cherries do not often ripen, and the apples, though plentiful, are of a bad kind; many are as transparent as those in the neighbourhood of Moscow, from which place they have probably been transplanted.[y] Rye, lint and flax yield good crops; little labour is bestowed on the culture of potherbs, and the peasants are ignorant of gardening. BOOK CVIII.

Hares, foxes, bears and wolves frequent the forests and brushwood, but the last animal is the most common and the most destructive of any; its extirpation would be of great advantage to the country. The elk wanders in the wooded or desert districts, and the heaths are well stocked with grouse, woodcocks and a variety of wild fowl. The salmon fisheries are the most productive; next to them may be mentioned those of the *Kulo-strœmling*, a species of small herring only found in the Baltic. The large lake of *Peipus*, which forms one of the natural limits of the country, abounds in bream[z] and *salmo maræna*. The lake is about 75 miles in length and 37 in breadth; its banks are covered with sand, and the adjacent country is flat and unvaried. The *Werzierw* or *Werz* is the second in size, and the *Fehsten* and *Marienburg* are comparable to any in point of natural scenery. Most of the rivers are small; the *Aa*, however, traverses nearly the whole of Livonia, and its Scandinavian name, which is common to other rivers, is little known in the country, the natives call it the *Goya*. The Narowa and its cascade have been already mentioned, the *Windau* forms another of 20 feet in Courland, and the fish in passing it are driven into the air, and fall in baskets arranged to receive them.[a] The *Duna* or the western Dwina or the Lettonian *Drugowa* is the only large river; the length of its course from a lake on the heights of Wolchonski in the government of Tver, Animals. Lakes. Rivers. Duna.

[y] The transparency, says M. de Bray, is the effect of climate.

[z] Cyprinus latus. [a] Georgi, Description de la Russie.

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to its embouchure below Riga, is not much less than 1000 vrests or 666 miles; but its channel is confined in many places by calcareous rocks. The peasants in White Russia never ascend it, and it is often difficult for them to descend in their *struzes* or barges. That obstacle is not the only one which diminishes the commercial utility of the river. It is shallow on the sandy plains of Livonia, and its streams are impeded by plants. M. de Bray collected on the Duna leaves of the *butomus umbellatus*, which were upwards of 22 feet in length; they were carried down the current in thousands, and obstructed the course of the boats.

Topographical details.

The dutchy of Esthonia is now changed into the government of Reval; the inhabitants amount, according to an approximate calculation, to 300,000, and of these the *Estes* make up five-sixths or nearly the whole peasantry, the remaining fraction is composed of the German nobility, some Russians, German burgesses and Swedish husbandmen.

The soil is not fruitful, the most of it is light or sandy, stony or marshy; still a great quantity of rye, barley, lint and flax is cultivated. The grain reaped in 1802, was not less, says M. Storch, than 931,530 *tshetverts*,[b] the consumption did not exceed 678,537, consequently the excess was equal to 252,993, which is proportionably much greater than the surplus crops in Livonia; but no general rule can be formed from the extraordinary harvests of 1802. The trade of the country is greater than formerly, and its imports are increased.

Towns.

The fortified town of Revel, founded in 1218 by the Danes in the time of Waldemar the Victorious, is situated in the ancient district of *Harria* or *Harenland*.[c] It was

[b] The tshetvert, or Russian malter, is equal to seven pouds and a half, or 300 lbs.

[c] Revel signifies a reef in Danish, and the town is called *Dani-Lin* or *Tallin*, the city of the Danes, by the Esthonians, Koliwan by the Russians, and *Dannu Pilss*, or the Danish castle, by the Lettonians.

once distinguished among the Hanseatic towns; its commerce, then very extensive, is still flourishing; many foreign vessels enter its harbour, which, though large, is difficult of access, it is also a station for a division of the Russian fleet. The town is peopled by 15,000 inhabitants, and the lower orders are employed in its large founderies, and distilleries. The public buildings are the Gothic cathedral and the *Baltisch-Port*, a rural palace in the imperial gardens of *Ekatarinendal*. The marine view from the last place is very extensive, but the opening is too great, it might require an immense dike to confine the inroads of the sea. The fortifications begun by Peter I. in 1719, and continued under Elizabeth and Catherine II. were abandoned in 1769. The station was then no longer necessary. The small town and convenient harbour of Habsal were founded by Absalom, a Danish archbishop and a famous general, who erected there the first cathedral in the diocese of Oesel, the ruins of the building still remain.

Livonia.

The ancient dutchy of Livonia is at present included in the government of Riga. It is peopled by more than 700,000 inhabitants, of whom 300,000 are Wendo-Lithuanian Lettons, and 340,000 Estes of Finnic origin. The northern districts are inhabited by the latter. The soil, unlike that of Esthonia, is not always of the same kind, there are a greater number of marshes, and also a greater number of plains. The grain harvest of 1802 yielded 1,523,748 tshetverts, and the consumption was not much less than 1,233,219. The exportation, considering the extent of the province, is inferior to that from Esthonia, but the population is more concentrated. The numerous distilleries form the most lucrative branch of the home trade, and the principal exports are flax and hemp. The forests are cleared in two ways, and both are equally ruinous to the country. The trees are sometimes cut and burnt, and the ground is afterwards tilled. The second method consists in labouring the land, and in covering it with trees brought from a distance. The fields are thus impregnated with

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Towns, Riga. Riga, the capital of Livonia, is well fortified, it is situated on the northern banks of the Duna, at the distance of nine miles from its embouchure. The population in 1799 was equal to 27,798 individuals, but according to M. Storch it was not greater than 24,515 in 1815. That author, however, did not include the suburbs, the inhabitants of which may amount to ten or twelve thousand, the whole number, therefore, could not have been much less than 36,000. A large townhouse, erected in 1750, many fine churches and a wide and convenient harbour are the greatest ornaments of Riga. But the streets are narrow, and most of the houses are ill built. A number of boats on the Duna form what the Russians call the Living Bridge.

Trade. The port is the second in the empire, and more than eleven hundred vessels sail to it every year. The exports consist chiefly of rye, barley, wheat, flax and lint, wax, honey, masts and different kinds of wood. Many foreign merchants are settled in the town, and all these articles are shipped in foreign vessels. The imports are not at present very valuable, but they might become so, if a canal were cut from the Dwina to the Wolga, by which a direct communication might be opened between Riga and central Russia. The manners, laws and customs of the place remind the stranger of a German town under the Hanseatic republick. The burgesses have a share in the profits of the custom-house, they maintain a hundred soldiers, a corps of artillery, and a fixed number of engineers. An arsenal has been assigned to them, and they have obtained on different occasions important privileges. Riga is surrounded with sand and marshes; the water of the Duna is turbid

and unwholesome; and the city, from the nature of its position, is sometimes inundated. The same town is considered a bulwark of the empire, and it proved in 1812 a barrier against the invasion of a French army, guided by the genius of Napoleon, until then unaccustomed to defeat. The fortifications are not very strong, and the place might have been easily taken, had not the army been weakened by severe hardships, and the soldiers discovered in the course of the campaign, that their leader was no longer invincible. Some other towns in Livonia may be shortly mentioned. *Wenden* or the Lettonian *Zehsis* was the ancient residence of the provincial masters of the Teutonic order. *Wolmar* derives its name from Waldemar II., king of Denmark, who gained there in 1220, a great victory over the Livonians. Dorpt, formerly a flourishing Hanseatic town, was wholly destroyed by the Russians in 1707. It has since that time been rebuilt of wood, and more than once burnt to the ground, calamities which have eventually contributed to its embellishment. It is at present peopled by 8500 individuals. Gustavus Adolphus founded there, and Paul re-established a German university for the people of Livonia, Esthonia and Courland. The inhabitants have thus been enlightened, knowledge and civilization have been diffused, and every important discovery made in Germany or the rest of Europe, has found its way into the three provinces. *Pernau* or, according to the meaning of the word, the town of lime trees, has a convenient harbour, and a hundred vessels laden with grain sail from it every year.

Fortifications.

University of Dorpat.

The government of Courland forms the frontier on the south of the Duna and the gulf of Riga, and extends on the west, like a promontory between the gulf of Livonia and the Baltic. It is only the last part which is strictly called Courland, the country of the *Coures* or *Kures*. The interior is known by the name of *Semigallia*, a word of which the first syllable is a corruption of *semme*, *same* or *suome*, a region or country, but it is difficult to determine the signification of the second

Courland.

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Climate. Productions.

Courland is the most agreeable and the most populous of the three dutchies; but the climate is severe and subject to dense fogs and sudden transitions from heat to cold. If the country near Windau and Goldingen be not included, the soil is everywhere rich, strong and argillaceous. Lint is the crop which succeeds best, and the province is much better cultivated than Livonia. The peasants, comparatively fortunate and intelligent, till their own land with greater care. All the grain raised in 1802 exceeded 1,444,764 *tshetverts*,[a] the quantity consumed equalled 1,168,930, consequently an excess of 275,834 was left. The population is greater than half a million, and not so widely scattered as in Livonia. The old *Koures* or the husbandmen make up nearly the whole number, almost all the nobles and burgesses are Germans. Two-thirds of the inhabitants profess the reformed religion; the remaining third or the most ignorant part of the community have been inveigled into catholicism by the Polish party; but since Poland has ceased to exist, few or no converts have been gained. The Jews are increasing rapidly, and the cause of the evil is imputed to the toleration which the czar affords them.

Towns.

Mittau, the capital of the province, and formerly the ducal residence, is situated on the Aa, which is called near its mouth the *Bulder-Aa*, and in the Lithuanian the *Lela-Uppe* or great river. The town is peopled by 12,000 inhabitants, it covers a large extent of ground, and the greater part of it is intersected by fields and gardens. The New castle in the neighbourhood was for some time a place of shelter for Lewis XVIII. *Libau*, a trading town on the sea shore, contains 5000 inhabitants; its port is shallow, the houses are built of wood, and consist only of a single story. *Jacobstadt*, a small town on the Dwina, is the principal residence of the vagrants, who exhibit dancing bears in most of the European capitals.

[a] A tshetvert or seven pouds and a half is equal to 300 lbs.

The lake of *Sauken* in the parish of Jacobstadt, is about two geographical miles in length, and more than a half in breadth. It was formed, according to the common opinion, after the earth had sunk to a considerable depth, and ingulphed all the habitations in the vicinity. Such a calamity is not improbable, although the time in which it happened, cannot be ascertained. The fishermen find sometimes in their nets pieces of carved wood and other materials, which must have formed part of the houses; besides, such an event might have been expected, for the marshes, like those in Livonia and Lithuania, are often covered with a crust of peat or turf, which becomes gradually thick and hard, and affords at last a temporary support for the dwellings of men. Sinking of the land.

The promontory of Domesnes, which extends between the gulf of Livonia and the Baltic sea, forms the northern extremity of Courland. The cape, though protected by a double pharos, is very dangerous to the mariners that repair to Riga. Headland of Domesnes.

We observe a number of islands on the north of the promontory, which might be termed from their inhabitants, the Esthonian Archipelago; some of them, however, belong politically to Livonia. The Esthonians call them the *Sarri-Ma* or country of the islands. The climate is milder than on the continent, the sea breezes dispel the clouds, and a serene sky is not so rare a phenomenon as on the neighbouring coast. The autumns are more genial, the oak thrives, and the sheep are covered with a finer wool. Runa, a calcareous rock covered with a vegetable mould, is the nearest to Cape Domesnes. It is peopled by a petty tribe of Swedes or ancient Scandinavians, and their dialect is confined to the island. The Oesel or the Esthonian *Kurri-Saar*, the *island of cranes*, is next to Zealand, the largest of any on the Baltic. The calcareous strata that form its base, are in many places covered with sandstone, and the appearance of the country is diversified by lofty forests, lakes and rivulets. The inhabitants, though rude, are not indolent; many cultivate the ground, others fish Esthonian Archipelago. Island of Oesel.

BOOK CVIII.

for the sea dog, or roam in quest of wrecks. The fishermen are good swimmers and divers, but by no means remarkable for their honesty. *Arensburg*, the principal town in Oesel, contains 1400 inhabitants. The island of

Dago.

Dago or *Dag-ø*, the Esthonian *Hio-ma*, lies to the north of the last; it abounds in wood, and although the western part is sandy, it is not unfruitful; rich meadows, orchards and gardens extend on the east. Some Swedish and free husbandmen are settled on the island, but the Esthonians, who are more numerous, were long degraded by slavery; still, many are good mechanics and able shipwrights, watch-makers and jewellers. The island of *Worms* is peopled by a colony of Swedes, who have retained their ancient dialect.[e] The total population of the Archipelago is nearly equal to 50,000 souls.

Inhabitants of the Provinces.

The difference in the manners and customs of the people that inhabit the three provinces, arises naturally from the difference in their origin and condition. The light of knowledge diffused over northern Germany is imparted to the nobles, the most of whom are Germans and members

Nobility.

of the reformed church. The aristocracy is not wealthy, but the youth are diligent, and their great merit in all the offices of public trust may be the result of their education and the fact that superiority of merit is their only claim for preferment. Those who remain at home, improve their estates, and contend against all the disadvantages of a rigorous climate. The greatest obstacles have given way to their perseverance; their lands are becoming every year more productive, hospitality reigns in their peaceful dwellings and in the ancient castles where the Teutonic knights held their disgraceful orgies. The nobles are no longer ignorant and rude warriors, but well informed and learned men. Some cultivate the fine arts, the greater number have good libraries, and, though far from the noise or amusements of towns, the nature of their pursuits is the best antidote against the evils of solitude. A German

[e] Grunert, Notices sur les iles Oesel et Dago, a memoir in the transactions of the Economical Society of Petersburg.

writer confesses he never heard his language spoken with such purity or harmony as by the Livonian ladies, who are at least as well educated as those in other countries. Their piety is sincere, because it is founded on gospel truth; some are perhaps tinged with enthusiasm, the failing of the understanding, not of the heart. It was a Livonian lady that first formed the idea of an holy alliance, but it ought to be observed in justice to Madam Krudener, that the name was the only part of her plan which the high contracting powers did not change. That extraordinary person fell into mysticism during the last years of her life, but her original scheme, had it been adopted, might have more effectually conciliated kings to their subjects, and subjects to their kings, disarmed revolutionary faction, and connected political with moral institutions. We learn with regret that the Moravian brothers have diffused more of cant and hypocrisy than true religion in Livonia.[f] The higher classes are free from these vices, and it might be difficult to find any order of men in the civilized portion of the Russian empire, so distinguished by their virtue and knowledge as the nobles in Esthonia, Livonia and Courland.

Burgesses.

The wars between Sweden and Russia were the cause of many calamities and changes in Riga, Revel and other towns of the same description; but the burgesses still adhere to their wise institutions, they are not less industrious, their municipal patriotism is not abated. Their habits of economy are not incompatible with urbanity or refinement, and all the useful seminaries and charitable establishments have been founded by citizens. We are persuaded that a stranger might discover in their towns whatever is most worthy of admiration in Lubeck, Bremen or Strasburg.

Peasantry.

The native husbandmen of Finnic and Lithuanian origin form a third class of inhabitants. The Swedish peasantry are not numerous, they are confined to a few islands,

[f] De Bray, III. p. 117.

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and are easily distinguished from the mass by their comparative affluence and civil liberty. The Finns and Wends, once the masters of their native soil, have been degraded by slavery for the last six hundred years. It is long since they despaired of breaking their chains, their hopes are no longer fixed on the earth, and heaven is supposed to be the country of the free.

Esthonians.

The Esthes inhabit, besides the province to which they have given their name, the most of the islands, and all the northern half of Livonia. It appears from the archives of the nobles, that Esthland is the correct name of the country, but it is more commonly termed Esthonia throughout the rest of Europe. The natives themselves call it *Esti-Ma*, but slaves, it is said, have no voice in such discussions. It is certain that the Estheans or Esthes inhabited formerly the regions on the south, and were the same as the *Aestii* of Tacitus, and the *Esti* of Jornandes; their country corresponded too with the Estum of the Scandinavian travellers. These Finnic tribes settled in the north, and were at an early period exposed to the incursions of the Danes, the inroads of the Lettonians, and the more durable invasions of the Germans. The Danes tried to establish the worship of Thor, the Lettonians introduced their dialect, and the Germans overturned the sacred trees, stone altars and wooden idols. The Esthonian, like all the other Finns, has resisted the influence of these changes with rare success; he retains his yellow hair and all the features characteristic of his race. However indulgent the peasant girls may be to their countrymen, their conduct towards the Germans is most exemplary. If any yield to the temptation of gold, they are

Language.

banished from the society of their village. The hatred of slaves against a dominant caste is not the only barrier between the Germans and Esthonians, another and as powerful an obstacle is the language of the latter, which differs little from the other Finnic tongues. The Esthonian is divided into the dialects of Revel or Harenland, Dorpt or Ungannia, and Oesel or Kure-Saar. The na-

tional and popular songs are written after the Finnic style, in other words, alliteration and metre are equally essential. Many of the ballads have been collected by the ingenious Herder, they illustrate the simplicity of a rude people, and the gloom and misery inseparable from slavery. The harmony of the language consists in sonorous and well-combined vowels, but it is fettered by a plaintive and tedious prosody, imitating perhaps the accents of oppression. The Esthonians are not insensible to the charms of music. While one of their bands, say the chroniclers, invested a strong castle in the thirteenth century, a monk played the harp from a rampart, and the besiegers withdrew from the siege.[g] Several ancient customs might be mentioned, but it is difficult to distinguish such as are of native origin from others introduced by the conquerors. The god *Tara-Pyha* has been compared to the Thor of the Scandinavians, yet the former divinity was represented under the form of a bird, which appeared on the sacred mount of *Thorapilla* or *Tara-Pyha* in the ancient province of *Wiria*, and flew sometimes to the great sanctuary in the island of Chori or Oesel. It is not easy to reconcile that fact with the supposition of a Scandinavian mythology. The most distant nations, the *Greeks* and the *Spaniards*, says Adam of Bremen, consulted the oracle in the island of *Chori*.[h] The Scandinavians would have also gone thither, had Thor been the god of the sanctuary. Although Thursday was consecrated to Thor and Thara, it is by no means a proof of their identity. *Joumala* was the generic name of the beneficent divinities, and *Weles* was applied exclusively to the wicked principle and its emanations. Some evil spirits were also called *Raggana*, but the characteristic of the Esthonian worship consisted in the adoration of rivers, mountains, high trees, plants and ani-

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[g] Merkel, die Vorzeit Lieflands, I. p. 248.

[h] Adamus Bremensis, c. ccxxiii.

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mals.[i] Their superstition was not wholly destroyed after the establishment of Christianity. Idolaters used to repair in the last century to *Wohhanda*, a rivulet of which the fresh and limpid source was encompassed with a sacred hedge; no sacrilegious hand dared to trouble its water, and the axe never approached the trees that obscured it with their shade. The brook, after it was enlarged by others, was called the *Paha-Ioggi* or sacred stream, and to obstruct or alter its course was to invoke on the land all the scourges of the divine wrath. A noble erected a mill on the river, but an insurrection was the consequence, the profane building was levelled with the ground, and the revolt was with difficulty repressed by a strong military force. The Catholic traditions are blended with the obscure recollections of paganism. When the festival of St. John is held, it is often accompanied with dancing and rural mirth. The peasants meet round the ruins of any chapel consecrated to the saint, and it is not uncommon to see some engaged in prayer or in the dance, while others are feasting or offering sacrifices.[k] Gifts are still deposited in the darkness of the night on consecrated stones, and the peasantry, though admonished by their pastors, carry food and a few dried sticks to the graves of their relatives.[l]

Sacred fountains and rivers.

Catholic Traditions.

The celebrated Herder, who lived in the country, and collected many popular songs, relates the following anecdote on the power of superstition. A young village girl dreamed of her arrival in *Jabmen-Aimo*, the country of the dead, there she met her parents, and desired eagerly to remain with them for ever. One of the *souls* advised her to retire into the recess of a forest, to abstain from nourishment, and to rest against a tree, in this way her wish would soon be gratified, and she herself might

[i] Bull of Innocent the Third in the year 1199. See Gruber Orig. Livon. p. 205.

[k] Merkel, Vorzeit Leifland's, I. 174.

[l] Livonia and Esthonia, I. 479. (a German work by Petri.)

live always with her mother. The dream did not end with her sleep, and the impression was strengthened by many visions that appeared in the solitary places to which she led her flock. Her friends were informed of these unearthly visions and of her intention to obey the repeated advices given by the *souls*. It was judged necessary to confine her, but she made her escape, and was not found during some days. When at last discovered, she was resting against a tree, her head was sunk on her breast, her arms were immoveable, and her eyes closed. Still life was not wholly extinct, and it was preserved for a season by the kindness of her relatives. Having recovered the power of speech, she deceived her guardians, fled anew, and concealed herself in the least accessible part of the forest. Her brother, after a long and fruitless search, observed her in the position enjoined by the shades, but her wishes were by that time fulfilled, she was then an inmate of the other world. BOOK CVIII.

Holy places.

We might enumerate among the holy places, the citadel of *Oden-Poch*, or the *sanctuary of the bear*, the river of *Embach* or *Emma-Ioggi*, the *mother of water*, and a number of lakes, springs, hills and caverns. The Egg Mountain is still venerated, and the weather is often predicted by the mists that rise from a spring on its eastern declivity.

Monuments.

Many curious monuments raised before the introduction of Christianity still remain, but it is not likely that they were erected by the Esthonians. Such are the ancient strong castles where the people met to defend themselves against the Teutonic Knights. That of Warbola has been fully described by a Livonian writer; it consists partly of a very large rampart formed by masses of granite laid above each other without lime or any other kind of cement. The two entrances bear the marks of modern workmanship, but the enclosure forms an irregular oval of 800 paces in circumference, and from 200 to 250 in diameter. The thickness of the walls may be about 30 or 36 feet, and they are higher or lower in some places than in

BOOK CVIII. others, according to the elevation of the ground.[m] That fortified post is not far from the sea, and others similar to it are situated in the island of Oesel, but none have hitherto been discovered on the eastern frontier towards Russia, or on the southern near the Lettonians. Thus it is not improbable from their position, that they were the works of the Scandinavians. The Swedish and Danish expeditions in the heroic ages might have been preceded by many other invasions in the fabulous times, and the Goths might have settled on these shores before they entered Scandinavia. It is certain from what is known of the Lettonians, the neighbours and enemies of the Ehstes, that the latter could not have erected such works. The fortifications raised in the 12th century by the Lettons were wholly composed of earth, and so ignorant were they of more solid buildings, that they attempted to pull down with ropes a castle founded by the Teutonic knights. It has been supposed that the ancient monuments in these countries served as forts to the sovereigns of *Polotzk*, a kingdom peopled by Goths and Slavonians, which was called Paltescia by the writers in the middle ages. If a line of similar ruins were traced along the Duna, the hypothesis might be confirmed. The *Cyclopean* walls in Livonia are well deserving the attention of antiquaries, but the want of information prevents us from arriving at any conclusion concerning their origin.

Kangers. "The two *kangers*," says a writer of the country, are immense dikes raised by the Lives to form a communication between fertile districts separated by marshes and lakes.[n] M. de Bray, who examined the large kanger, gives a different and more correct account of it. "It is not an artificial but a natural road of more than ten miles in length. As its distance is so great, it may be readily admitted by those acquainted with the country, that it does not form a straight line. It consists chiefly of sand,

[m] Memoir by the Count of Mellin in *Hupel's Nordische Miscellaneen*, Number 17.

[n] Boerger, Versuch über die Alerthumer Liefiands, p. 78.

but also of calcareous and granite rocks, which rise in some places to the height of sixty feet above the marshes that limit it on each side. The road extends on the summit or narrowest part of that singular elevation, which becomes gradually broader, and the base varies from twelve to twenty feet in breadth. The two sides are covered with the *pinus abies* and *sylvestris*, the *populus tremula* and the *rubus saxatilis*. It is absurd to attribute such works to human efforts; had the Lives wished to open a communication between the marshes, a road not more than two feet above their surface might have answered the purpose, indeed many of that description have been made in Livonia. It was unnecessary to raise a hill, or to prolong the distance by useless windings. The kanger is not the work of the Lives but of nature, who in one of her capricious moods formed that long and narrow mass of sand and earth, which extends in the direction of *Sunzel* beyond the marshes. It is a dismal and dreary view from both sides of the great kanger, the sterile and desert fens below it reach to the utmost verge of the horizon. Other works of the same kind have been observed in different parts of Livonia and Esthonia. A similar and very lofty *kanger* is situated on the estate of Jendel, which belongs to the provincial judge of Lowenstern; many fine walks have been cut on the summit by the proprietor, and they are encompassed with woods, meadows and lakes."[o] It may be added in confirmation of M. de Bray's opinion, that we have lately seen a Swedish traveller, who observed more than twenty of these natural dikes throughout the central ridge of Carelia, Savolax and Tavastland, they were composed of the same rocks, and although used as roads, some parts of the summits were hardly broad enough for a man to pass on horseback. BOOK CVIII.

The people in the island of Oesel have calendars, which serve every ordinary purpose, and the divisions and marks Calendars.

[o] De Bray, Essai historique, t. I. 77.

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are the same as those on the Runic staves of the Scandinavians.[p]

Character of the Esthonians.

The Esthonians are strong and active, but in general below the middle size; though cheerful and patient, they are degraded by the vices inherent in slavery; still the dignity of their nature is not wholly lost, they submit reluctantly to insults and arbitrary punishments. Their tendency to revolt and to avenge their wrongs is in their present condition a proof of magnanimity and virtue. The good qualities of the people are now appearing, the laws are milder, their masters less rigid, useful institutions more common, and the system of education greatly improved.

Lettons or Lettonians.

The Lettons, like the Koures and Semigalli formed a part of the *Wendo-Lithuanians*, who have been sometimes confounded with the Finno-Huns, but their language, dialects, religion and superstitions were different. These differences shall be fully considered in another section, and we shall give at present some account of the people that inhabit southern Livonia. "They are all," says M. de Storch, "barbarians and slaves, and most of them struggle for the means of subsistence. Their stature is very short, many of the women might be considered dwarfs. The Lettonian peasants are not able to raise or bear so heavy weights as the Germans, but they can endure greater fatigue, and are less affected by cold, heat or moisture. They do not require so much sleep, and resist better the effects of too much or too little food. The immoderate use of ardent spirits does not appear to be so deleterious to them as might be imagined. The Letton, like the Russian, uses warm baths, and passes from excessive heat to the open air. Rheumatism and other diseases of the same kind are unknown in the country."

The common opinion concerning the moral inferiority of the Lettons, their abject servility and barbarism, is in many respects incorrect. A clergy more attentive to the religious instruction of the people, more numerous schools,

[p] Hupel's Nachrichten, t. IV. p. 588.

and above all, the civil rights conferred on the peasantry, have placed them higher in the scale of civilization. The present Courlanders are of the same origin, and they are nowise inferior to the Esthonians.

Lettonian superstitions.

The superstitions of the country people are of a singular character. When the cuckoo is heard before breakfast for the first time in the spring, it is a bad omen, a sign of famine or poverty during the rest of the year.[1] Many take the precaution of breakfasting in that season before they enter the fields, or commence their day's labour. The same danger exists, and the same precautions are used about the time that the lapwing arrives in the country. If a hare or a fox passes the road on which a man is travelling, some disaster is about to happen, but if a wolf crosses him, it is a sign of good fortune. If a woman or a girl be the first person that a hunter meets on leaving his cottage, it is an unlucky omen, but it may be averted. The hunter returns home, departs again, and, if the first person that meets him is a boy or a man, he prepares for the chase. Such superstitions were common in Denmark and Sweden, and the great Tycho-Brahe was not wholly exempt from them. When a Lettonian means to fish in a river, he must not communicate his project to any one, otherwise he is not likely to have much amusement. But if two agree to go together, a third person may be apprized

[1] Some peasants in different parts of England still consider it unlucky to hear the cuckoo before they have seen the swallow. Milton alludes to another and more poetical superstition of the same kind, in his beautiful sonnet to the nightingale:

Thy liquid notes that close the eye of day,
First heard before the shallow cuckoo's bill,
Portend success in love. O if Jove's will
Have link'd that amorous pow'r to thy soft lay,
Now timely sing, ere the rude bird of hate
Foretel my hopeless doom in some grove nigh;
As thou from year to year hast sung too late
For my relief, yet hadst no reason why:
Whether the Muse, or Love call thee his mate,
Both them I serve, and of their train am I.

MILTON, Sonnet I.

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of their intention without inconvenience. If a fisherman lays his rod on the ground, and any one steps over his line, that line is wholly useless, no more fish can afterwards be taken with it. The peasant does not permit his friend to commend his possessions, his flocks or poultry, his grain or provisions. Whatever is much praised, is likely to be destroyed, a notion that appears to have been common to the Greeks, and inculcated in the worship of Nemesis.

Other ancient traditions are not wholly unconnected with physical geography and climatology. The summers in which flies are more than usually abundant, are succeeded by plentiful harvests of black wheat, *(polygonum fagopyrum)* and rainy summers are predicted as often as the plum tree of St. Lucia *(prunus padus)* is covered with blossoms. It is customary before a cottage is built, to examine what sort of ant is common in the neighbourhood. The common large ant *(Formica rufa, Linn.)* is not unlucky; but if it happens to be the small brown ant, *(Formica rubra, Linn.)* a different site must be chosen,

BOOK CIX.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. European Russia. Fifth Section. Central Provinces or great Russia.

BOOK CIX.

Preliminary remarks.

THE southern, eastern and northern regions of European Russia have been already described, and we have observed in these widely different regions, magnificent cities and frightful solitudes, marble palaces and clay cottages, the noise and confusion of capitals, the quiet and stillness of the desert, the Tartar reposing near his Crimean vineyard, and the Laplander braving all the rigour of a polar winter. But we have only observed the Russians in the character of rulers, nay even of strangers in their own dominions. The countries which we have now to mention are really Russian, the nation is collected in the central provinces, that nucleus of the empire, where the traveller may hear the language, and observe the manners and customs of Russia. Central Russia comprehends the government of *Novgorod*, *Tver*, *Pleskow*, *Polotzk* or *Vitepsk* and Smolensko round the Waldaic ridge, *Iaroslavl*, *Vladimir*, *Kostroma* and *Nischney-Novgorod* on the Wolga, *Moscow*, *Kaluga*, *Toula*, *Orel*, *Riæzan*, *Tambof* and *Penza*, or the countries from which the Oka, the Don and the Desna take their rise; and lastly, the governments of *Kursk* and *Woronesch*, (Voronez) which join the plains of the Ukraine. The superficies of the whole terri-

BOOK CIX. tory is not less than 50,720 square leagues, and the population is equal to twenty-four millions. The four governments of Little Russia shall be examined in another section, their climate is milder, and they are inhabited by nations of a different origin.

Central ridge. The central region is formed by a lofty plain on the sides of the Baltic, Poland and the Black and Caspian Sea. The Volgaic hills in the government of Saratof, the falls of the Dneister, the heights of Smolensko, and the Waldaic chain determine its elevation in the four directions which we have mentioned. It must not, however, be imagined that geographers are in possession of sufficient materials to enable them to trace the limits of the ridge, or to ascertain its highest points. The forest of *Volchonski*[a] near the sources of the Wolga and the Duna, between Ostaschkof and Toropez, is supposed to be 1300 feet above the level of the sea, but no part of it is very acclivous or rugged; on the contrary, it is a gently sloping plain, which may probably account for the name of *Visokaia Plotska*, that has been given it by the natives.[b] But the rivers and the deeply indented lakes are encompassed by steep banks of slate, gypsum and limestone mixed with shells. Masses and blocks of granite are scattered on the surface; different geologists consider them the monuments of a deluge, or the boundaries of an ancient sea, or rocks once enclosed in floating ice, and transported by the ocean to their present position. The last hypothesis, however ingenious, is not very probable, and we believe that they were formed, like all other rocks, on the place which they occupy. The high country between the Duna and the Dneiper is composed of the same substances. But calcareous hills appear in the direction of Orel, small and ill-defined chains extend towards the sources of the Oka, the Don, the Sura and the Choper, and are confounded near Samarskoi Lug with the line of hills on the Wolga. Banks

Height of Volchonski.

Calcareous hills.

[a] It is the *Volchonskoi-Bor* of Nestor, and the Russian authors suppose it the Alaunus Mons of Ptolemy.

[b] Visokaia Plotska signifies a high valley.

of chalk rise like islands at some distance to the south, and terminate in steep promontories from two to three hundred feet in height. The same substance predominates in some plains in the Ukraine, and in the government of Voronez. Beds of flint are scattered in limestone mixed with shells, and granite rises through all the rocks in the south; but it cannot be affirmed that it forms part of a low chain, which might serve to fix the limits of the ridge towards the basin of the Black Sea. We are also unable, from want of sufficient information, to give a correct account of the ridge Wolchonski on the north. Granite is observed on the calcareous hills of Waldai, but none of them are higher than 350 feet, and the basin of the Ladoga is separated from the Wolga by these low heights. A loftier ridge is situated in the country on the north-east, near the lakes of Bielo-Osero and Kubenskoi; its elevation, according to recent and hitherto unpublished observations, is in some places upwards of 1000 feet. It terminates at the base of the Ural, from which, as we have already seen, the Kama and Wialka take their source. The greater part of the plain on the north of Iaroslavl, is covered with marshes, and is not very different both in height and in the nature of the soil from the vallies in the governments of Moscow and Wladimir, or from those in Kaluga and Tula. That part of the valley on the central Wolga, which separates the two table lands, is about three or four hundred feet above the Caspian. The Oka or principal river in the government of Moscow, passes through no steep declivity in any part of its long course; even in Riazan, where it winds between fruitful hills, its tranquil streams water low vallies, and unite with the Wolga. But the land on the right of the Oka beyond Murom rises visibly, a fact which might be otherwise proved by the rapid course of the Telscha. That high country is situated on the south of Nischney Novgorod, and the west of Simbirski; it is bounded on the north-east, the east and the south-east by the great eastern winding of the Wolga, which is ge-

Chalk banks.

Hills of Waldai.

Ridge on the north-east.

Wolgaic chain.

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nerally, but incorrectly called the *Wolgaic chain.* It is only a comparatively steep part of the table land, formed by strata of calcareous slate, gypsum, alabaster, argil and sandy marl. The highest hills are not more than 300 feet above the Wolga. The slow-moving *Sura* and the almost stagnant course of the *Zna* in Tambof, prove that the country is low near their source. Such is all the information which we have been able to collect concerning the boundaries and configuration of central Russia.

Climate, four zones.

The climate of these plains may be divided into four zones. The governments of Novgorod, Tver, Pleskow, Vitepsk and Smolensko are, from the elevation of their soil, exposed to a much more rigorous climate than the Livonian provinces. The rivers are generally frozen from the 20th of November to the 1st of April. The winter of 1812, which accelerated the destruction of the French army, already weakened by want of food and by murderous contests, was not more than usually severe. Secondly, the governments of Iaroslavl, Vladimir, Kostroma and Nischney Novgorod are, on account of their lower level, more temperate, although they are partly situated on the same latitude as the five governments in the Wolchonskian ridge; still the difference consists more in the greater heat of summer than in the shorter duration of winter. The rivers are long frozen, the autumns and springs are more humid and variable. The country may be better adapted for the cultivation of hemp and flax, but it is not perhaps so healthy. Thirdly, the central mass of the ridge, which includes the governments of Moscow, Kaluga, the northern part of Orel, Riæzan, Tambof and Penza, is still milder, though more variable and moist than the two preceding zones. A temperature below 16 or 20 of Fahrenheit is a rare phenomenon at Moscow; excessive heat is not so common, and the winters, like those at Petersburg, are occasionally interrupted by storms or impetuous winds, that last sometimes fifteen days. Still the thermometer, on an average of the whole year, descends almost

as many days below the freezing point, as it rises above it.[c] The season in which the ice on the rivers begins to melt, proves the progression of cold towards the east. Thus the climate of Riæzan, Penza and Tambof, is not so mild as might have been expected from the latitude. Lastly, the temperature is much more genial in the southern part of Orel. The summers are less variable, and the springs earlier in the governments of Kursk and Voronez. But even these provinces on the fiftieth parallel, are for a short time exposed to the cold winters of Moscow, and the open plains afford a free passage to the frozen winds from the Uralian mountains. The plants in Kursk and Voronez are different; coniferous trees become less common, and the tapering summits of the pine give place to the wide-spreading branches of the oak. The herbage is more nutritive, the meadows are enamelled with flowers, and the cattle are larger and stronger.

Plants and trees.

It appears from the researches of different statistical writers, that pines, firs and other trees of the same sort are most numerous within the fifty-seventh parallel; the birch, the *populus tremula* and the lime extend to 54° or 55°; the oak is thickly scattered on the central ridge, and although it thrives best about 51° or 52°, many are large and lofty in the valley of the Wolga near the 55th degree. The Russian, like the Canadian oak, is not remarkable for its solidity; the other trees in the same forests are the *Acer Tartaricum* or Russian maple, the white poplar and hornbeam. The beech, though not rare in Livonia, is seldom seen in Smolensko, and does not succeed beyond the plains of Little Russia. The climate of the central ridge is too cold for the chesnut and walnut.[d]

Forests.

Many naval yards are supplied with timber from the forests in the north-west of central Russia; but lofty firs

[c] Reaumur's thermometer was 155 days below zero in 1790, and 177 days in the following year.

[d] Georgi, Description de la Russie, partie botanique.

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and larches are less common beyond that region; the woods to the south of Moscow, particularly in Kursk and Orel, are not so extensive, and in some places they are already exhausted. Besides the trees that are cut for ship-building and fire wood, the peasants obtain turpentine from others, and tar and lampblack from pines and firs. The bark of the birch is used in tanning, and made into round boxes, in which caviar, fruits and butter are preserved. The leaves of the same tree afford a yellow dye, and the sap which exudes from it in spring is changed into a slightly acid and agreeable beverage. The lime is used to greater advantage in Russia than in other countries; its bark supplies sufficient materials for baskets, trunks and the roofs of houses, and the tender bark of the young lime is plaited into shoes, which are worn by the peasantry. The wood is burnt for potashes, or used in building river boats, and swarms of bees extract honey from the flowers.

Agriculture.

Late rye, early barley and oats are more generally cultivated on the high plains than other kinds of grain. Wheat is exposed to vernal frosts, and sometimes blasted by mildew. The *Lediauka* is the only variety of wheat that is suited for the country. The common manner of burning the forests in Finland, is not unknown on the frontiers of Moscow, and no better proof need be adduced of the poverty of the soil and the severity of the climate. The ordinary plough is seldom used in the south from want of oxen, a lighter instrument is substituted, which only grazes the land, and is easily drawn by a single horse. The peasants are indolent, and agriculture is neglected in Great Russia; indeed slaves are never eager to labour for the exclusive profit of their masters.

Method of drying wheat.

The Russian method of drying wheat has been adopted in northern countries. Wooden cottages are built, poles are placed across them, and apertures, which may be shut as occasion requires, are made in their sides. A large stove is erected in the immediate vicinity, and tubes pass from it to the building. The sheaves are suspended on the poles, a slow fire burns in the stove, and the smoke and vapour from the moist grain, escape by the openings.

The form of these buildings varies in different provinces, but the custom is general, and not without many advantages. Although the grain is thus rendered smaller, it is effectually preserved against the ravages of the weevil, and retains its nutritive qualities a longer time. The culture of flax and hemp is more productive and better understood than any other in central Russia.

Fruit trees.

Apples and different kinds of fruit are imported into the capitals and large towns, but such articles are not required in these provinces. The German writers suppose erroneously that the orchards are of little value, and ill cultivated by the inhabitants. It is true that the former have become more important, and the latter more industrious within the last thirty years. The different species of apples, which grow in central Russia, were brought from Astrakhan, Persia and Kabardia. The European kinds are rare. The apple of *Kirevsk*, though very large, is agreeable to the taste, some of them weigh more than four pounds. The transparent apple thrives in the governments of Vladimir and Moscow; it is said to have been imported from China, but many consider it indigenous to the Crimea; it is so permeable to light that the seeds are seen through it. A great quantity of fruit is raised in the governments of Kaluga and Riæzan, and the making of cider, or the culture of apples forms an important branch of industry. Annual fairs are held in the towns of Kaluga and Simbirsk, from which the fruits are exported to the southern provinces. But the abundance is merely local, for apples and pears are every year imported by the Baltic into the northern provinces. The quantity sent in 1794 to Petersburg only, was sold for 122,000 roubles.[e] The woods of wild apple trees do not extend beyond the forty-ninth parallel, consequently the extensive orchards on the banks of the central Wolga and Oka, must have been raised by the inhabitants. As the European sorts, which are

Asiatic apples.

[e] A sum nearly equal to L.25,417.

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common in Little Russia, are not cultivated, it could not have been the Great Russians, during their dispersion from south-west to north-west, but the Finns or rather the Tartars, whose descendants are now confounded with the other inhabitants, that transplanted the fruits of Asia in these countries. The cherry and plum tree grow spontaneously within the 55th parallel. Whole forests of the first are scattered through the government of Voronez, and their culture in some places of central Russia, particularly in Vladimir, is the only means by which many gain a subsistence. The fruit, however, has not been much improved by cultivation, there are not more than two or three species, and these are little larger than wild cherries. Horticulture is generally neglected, but cabbage thrives throughout the provinces, and asparagus in the neighbourhood of Moscow. It is not a little extraordinary that the gardeners of Rostow in the government of Iaroslavl, are superior to any in Europe; although unaided by the lights of science, and without resources, contending against a rigorous climate, they supply Petersburg and Moscow with all kinds of early vegetables. It is probable that they are the descendants of a foreign colony, the real Russian gives himself little trouble about such pursuits.

Horticulture.

Gardeners of Rostow.

Animal kingdom.

The animal, like the vegetable kingdom in central Russia, is not of a distinct character. The rein deer and the camel, though not found within the region, approach its utmost limits on the north and the south. The other quadrupeds in the neighbouring countries exist in the different governments. The bear, the wolf, the glutton, the squirrel, the hare and the roebuck are most numerous in the forests. The fallow deer does not exist in the country, or at all events, is very rare. The elk agrees with the climate, but it avoids the hunter, and seeks safety in the most inaccessible forests. The urus has disappeared, and the stag has decreased in number. The *sorex moschatus*, the *mus decumanus*, the Russian marmot and the *mus cricetus* abound in the barren plains on the east of Voronez

and the Oka. The domestic animals are for the most part of an inferior kind; the ox is thin and bony, the sheep is covered with a coarse wool, but a fine fur is obtained from the lamb, and many of these animals are slain for the sake of their skin, when not more than one or two days old. Horses. We have already spoken of the hardy patience of the Finnic, and the swiftness of the Cossack horse; these good qualities are united in a less degree in the Russian horses. It is astonishing how much the Russian horses resemble each other, notwithstanding the difference of climate, food and keeping. They may be known by their prominent heads, large shoulders and broad chests; the rest of the body is well enough proportioned. They can support long journies, but many are timid and not easily broken.

Government of Novgorod.

The government of Novgorod may, from its cold and sterility, be compared to Ingria; its extensive deserts on the north-east, join those of Wologda and Olonetz. Winter begins fifteen days earlier at Bielo-Osero and Kyrilow than at Petersburg, and even the country near the town of Novgorod, is neither fruitful nor well cultivated. More hemp and flax are raised than what is consumed by the people, but the fisheries and forests, which make up a fifth part of the whole territory, are the principal resources of 900,000 inhabitants. The town of *Weliki* Novgorod or Great Novgorod, covers a large extent of land on both banks of the Wolchowa. The part on the left of the river, is called the *Side* of *Sophia* from the principal church, which, together with the archbishop's palace and the barracks, is situated within the *kremlin* or citadel, and surrounded by a few old and detached houses. The other part on the right of the river, is the residence of merchants and retail traders. Both quarters are united by a bridge, and they contain about 1540 houses, 63 churches, (some of which are built in the suburbs) and nearly 10,000 inhabitants. Novgorod was a rich and powerful republick in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries; its dominions extended to the White Sea, and it disputed the possession of Finland with the Swedes. The date of

History of the town of Novgorod.

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its origin is very ancient, the people of the north repaired to it in the first ages of the vulgar era, and the Russian historians assure us that it was a flourishing town long before the entrance of the Slavonians into the country. It was inhabited so early as the ninth century by princes tributary to the great dukes of Russia. The first bishop was chosen in 998, and a revolution, a proof at least of some degree of civilization, took place in 1135. The monarchy then became elective, and a mixed form of government was introduced. The Hanseatic towns established in 1276 one of their great factories, and the whole commerce of Russia was concentrated in Novgorod. According to some authors, its population amounted at that time to 400,000 souls; it is uncertain however whether or not all the inhabitants of the adjoining district were included. The republick of Novgorod began to decline in the 15th century, and it was completely subdued by the grand duke Iwan Wasiliewitsch in 1578. Its commerce was greatly impaired after the foundation of St. Petersburg; but it still retains the carrying trade between Petersburg and Moscow. *Staraia Russa*, another town in the same government, may be mentioned, not on account of its six thousand inhabitants and its salt mines, but because it is generally believed to have been, as its name indicates, the first capital and the most ancient settlement of the Waraguean Russians. A valuable library of rare and old books is attached to the convent of *Jewerskoi-Monastyr*, which stands on an island in the lake of Waldai. The town of *Ustiushna* is built on the *Scheleso-Polie* or plain of iron, an extensive district, where a great quantity of that metal is obtained. Many of the poor in *Kyrilow* and *Bielo Oserak* gain a subsistence by selling the images of the saints.

Government of Pleskow and Witepsk.

The two governments of *Pleskow* or *Pskow* and *Witepsk*, are nowise different in their physical geography, and the interior of both is formed by the northern, western and southern heights of the ridge Wolchonski. The elevation of the land in the neighbourhood of Weliki-Luki and

Opotscha, varies from seven to eight hundred feet. Granite rocks are thickly scattered, and the *salmo eperlanus* abounds in the numerous lakes. The Duna descends these lofty plains in a south-west direction and by gentle declivities towards the large lake of Peipus. The low country is very different from the heights, the soil is sandy or marshy and not mixed with argil, limestone or shells. The banks of the marshes are covered with ferns and *thymelæa*, the sky is often obscured by mists, and the greater part of the land is sterile. But the inhabitants are not numerous, and a considerable quantity of rye and other grain is annually exported. Hemp and flax are the crops which succeed best; the oak and the apple tree are seldom seen, but the *prunus padus* is by no means rare. The scenery, though bleak and wild, is not destitute of beauty. The water in the lakes is limpid, their channels are easily seen, and the flying squirrel haunts and enlivens the woods. Beams, planks and masts, the produce of the forests, are sent in great numbers to different parts of the empire. The *Welikaia-Reka* or *large river* flows rapidly towards the lake of Pleskow, which forms a part of the Peipus. The Lowat descends to the lake Ilmen, and is confined in its passage by projecting rocks. The name of the *Toropa*, the outlet of many lakes, ought perhaps to be extended to the Duna. The same term enables us to account for the ancient name of Turuntus. It might be worth while to compare the high plains of Pskow and Polotsk with others in the interior of Prussia; both are of the same elevation, at the same distance from the Baltic, and equally important in their relation to geology and physical geography.

Inhabitants.

The population is of a very mixed character, the peasants in the west of Welikaia, particularly in Polish Livonia, are of Lettonian origin, and the nobles are mostly Germans and Poles. All the inhabitants in the greater part of Pskow are Russians, but they are more indolent and less sprightly than the rest of their countrymen. There are besides some Finno-Ingrian, Esthonian and German or Livonian colo-

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White Russians.

nists. The banks of the Duna, the greater part of Witepsk and Mohilew are peopled by a particular race, the *Rousniacs*, the *Bielo* or *white* Russians. Their dialect is very ancient and perhaps connected with the Great Russian and Polish, but it is more harmonious than either. It is still spoken in Mohilew, and it extended at one time over the whole of White Russia. Although of Slavonic origin, and not mixed with modern tongues, it cannot be determined whether or not it was used in the middle ages by the *Kriwitzes* or *Kriwetans* of Constantine Porphyrogenetes, or whether that tribe was composed of Slavonians proper, Lithuanians or Finns. The Rousniacs make up the population of the rural districts, and are divided into three classes. The *Zemianini*, who call themselves *Szlachnics* or persons of family, may possess land, they are exempt from statute labour, but are obliged to pay a tax of fourteen roubles to the Polish lords. The *Gloscholkunischniczi* are hired labourers, and the *Prigonoi* are attached to the soil.

Classes.

We remark in the government of Witepsk, as we advance from north to south, the town of *Dunaburgh*, once the metropolis of Polish Livonia, and *Polotzk*, a place of 3000 inhabitants, the ancient capital of a small Scandinavian kingdom, and afterwards, from the tenth to the thirteenth century, of a Russian dutchy founded by Isaslav the son of Wladimir the Great. Witepsk contains at present a population of 15,000, and carries on an active trade with Riga. The houses are antiquated and ill built, the streets are narrow, and the old walls are decorated with towers. Many Jews are settled there and in the other towns in the same government, they amass wealth by usury, the inhabitants of every rank are dependent on them, and none more so than the light and frivolous Poles. Plesków, an acient Russian province, is not exposed to the last evil, but it has often been the theatre of destructive wars. The town of the same name is built on the Welikaia, and divided into three divisions, each of which is surrounded by a brick wall. Although the inhabitants do not exceed ten thousand, there are not fewer than sixty

churches built of stone. Pleskow was united with the Hanseatic towns, and the people retained their independence until the year 1509. It possessed an extensive commerce, which is much diminished, it now consists of tallow, leather, tar, flax and lint, that is sold for a high price, on account of its fineness. *Weliki-Luki*, which is noted for its good leather, was long one of the frontier towns in Russia. Toropetz or the most populous and commercial town in the government, is situated on the Toropa, the population amounts to 12,000, and the produce of the country is conveyed from it to the Duna. The church of the monks in the convent of Petschora, and the long subterranean alleys are cut in a sandstone rock. The small town of *Isborsk* on the banks of a lake, was in the ninth century the residence of Waraguean princes. BOOK CIX.

The government of Smolensko, or the ridge on the other side of the Duna, is less lofty, but not so humid or marshy. The winters are long and severe, still a luxuriant vegetation is expanded by the great heat of summer. The forests abound in lofty trees; large masts are sent to Riga, naval timber and fire wood to Kiew. Although the peasants are slaves, their lords are wealthy, and hemp, flax, wax, tallow, horses, oxen and pigs are the produce of their estates. The peasantry weave their own cloth and linen, and they make carpets, which are prized in many parts of the empire. The ploughs used in the country, are drawn by oxen, and are heavier than those in the other governments. The villages, though built after the Russian manner, are cheerful, and many of the cottages are shaded with trees.[f] The province of Smolensko has been the ordinary road into which invaders have passed from Poland, and entered Russia. Charles the Twelfth chose a different route, the campaign was disastrous to the Swedes, but his plans were wisely devised. The town of Smolensko was an ancient bulwark Towns. Government of Smolensko.

[f] Reinbeck, Reise, II. 230.

BOOK CIX. of the empire, and the common people consider it, as well as Moscow, a sacred or holy place. The town stands on an amphitheatre, it was speedily rebuilt after its destruction in 1812, and before that period it contained 12,000 inhabitants, its linen and silk manufactories were flourishing, and many persons from different parts of the empire, repaired to its great annual fair. The greater part of *Dorogobousch* is built of stone, and its population amounts to 4000. *Wiaisma*, though built of wood, possesses a considerable trade, and is peopled by 12,000 inhabitants. Grain, flax, lint, wax and honey are exported from its pristan or harbour to Petersburg by the feeders of the Wolga. *Poretchi*, a place of 6000 inhabitants, carries on a trade between Riga and Smolensko by the Kaspla, which falls into the Duna.

Government of Tver.

The Wolga rises in the government of Tver, and when it issues from its natal marsh, it is not more than two feet in breadth. The country on the west is high, cold and in many places unfruitful, but it is covered with lofty forests. The land on the east is lower, the climate is more temperate, and the canals which connect the navigation of the Wolga and the Neva, contribute greatly to the commercial wealth of the people.

Towns.

The town of Tver is well built, the streets are broad, and the squares are large, one of them is adorned with an obelisk in honour of Catherine the Second. The place contains 20,000 inhabitants, and its prosperity depends on its position, which is favourable for commerce. A hundred boats often sail from it in the same day, and pass from the Wolga into the canal of *Wichney-Wolotschek*. The city of the last name is enlivened by the numerous boats which ascend and descend the canal. The cheerful town of *Torjok* is situated between the two last, and participates in their trade. The manufacture of Morocco leather is a lucrative branch of industry, and the population of Torjok exceeds at present 15,000 souls. *Ostaschkow*, which lies towards the west, is the metropolis of an unhealthy district, where the atmosphere is impregnated with disagreeable exhalations that

rise from lakes and marshes. The inhabitants earn a livelihood by building boats. *Rjew-Wladimirow* contains 7000 souls, and the boatmen and the other people who subsist by navigation, repair to it. The towns on the east are insignificant, but the inhabitants of *Kaschin* export their red pigment, and the people in *Bejetsk*, their agricultural instruments. The rural population consists for the most part of Finnic Carelians.

Government of Moscow.

The government of Moscow is considered the nucleus of the empire; the inhabitants are more industrious than those in any other Russian province, it is also more populous and better cultivated. The argillaceous and sandy soil is not very fertile, and many parts are covered with heaths or marshes. The northern and eastern districts are well provided with wood; the others are cultivated, and produce rye, barley and early wheat; still the grain raised, and the cattle reared in the whole government, are inadequate to the wants of the inhabitants. The corn harvest in 1802 amounted to 2,570,000 tshetverts, but it was necessary, in addition to that quantity, to purchase and import 1,120,000. The asparagus, plums and apples of the province, are said to be of as good a quality as any in Russia.

Produce.

Industry.

Manufacturing industry is diffused from the capital to the villages, and divided into many branches. Tallow, cloth, silk, calico, sailcloth, table linen, hats, Russian and Morocco leather, paper, stoneware, porcelain, cutlery and many other articles are exported from the province. The inland trade of the capital is very great, less subject to fluctuation, and of a more national sort than that of Petersburg. The merchants are connected with the different houses throughout the vast empire from Moscow to Kiakhta; they have their agents in Pekin, London, Samarcand and Hamburg.

Commerce.

Towns. Moscow.

The famous city, which was burnt and levelled with the ground by its patriotic inhabitants, has now risen from its ashes with greater splendour, and without having lost

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its original character. Moscow, or as it is more correctly styled Moskwa, is situated on a river of the same name at the base of the heights, which are called the *Sparrow hills*. The czars are still crowned in the ancient capital of the empire, and Moscow is still the residence of the oldest families and the wealthiest nobles. It is the seat of an university, several learned societies, of the senate, and a section of the holy synod. As to superficial extent, it is, after Constantinople, the largest town in Europe, for its circumference is not less than five German miles or thirty-four versts.[g] Its great extent must not be attributed to its population, but to the manner in which it is built. The houses are of a single story, many are detached cottages, there are some palaces with very large gardens, and a great space is covered with churches and chapels. Each church has several cupolas, some are painted in red or green, others are covered with white iron or gilded copper. The number of cupolas is not fewer than 1200, and most of them are overtopped by a cross or crescent. It is a curious spectacle to see such a confused mass of palaces, cottages and cupolas, and the best time to enter Moscow is when the morning sun darts its rays on the different groups. It is then that strangers ascend the tower of Iwan[h] to take a view of the town.

Extent, appearance.

Three hundred and one churches were set apart for the Greco-Russians, two for the Lutherans, one for the Calvinists, another for the Catholics, a third for the united Greeks, and a fourth for the Armenians. Twenty-nine monasteries were inhabited by monks, and the number of houses amounted to 12,548, although not more than 1706 were built of brick or stone. The population in summer was equal to 250,000, and in winter to 300,000. There were in 1817, or in the fifth year after the great conflagration, 288 churches, 9148 houses, 6187 shops built of stone, and not fewer than 170,000 inhabitants. The population has be-

Number of houses.

[g] Nearly twenty-three English miles.

[h] The name of Iwan is synonymous with John.

come during the eight successive years, greater than it ever was at any former period. Many of the wooden houses have been replaced by stone buildings, and although the ancient confusion has not wholly disappeared, for 2600 habitations were not destroyed, still many of the streets and squares are more regular.

Kremel or Kremlin.

Moscow is divided into four quarters, the *Kremel* or citadel, *Kitaigorod*, *Bielogorod* and *Semlanoi-gorod*; but these divisions do not include the numerous *slobodes* or suburbs. The Kremlin is encompassed with high and thick walls, protected by battlements, and flanked with turrets. The dismal fortifications were partly destroyed by the French, and within them was situated the ancient palace of the czars, the residence of the valiant Iwan, the generous Michael Romanzow, the wise Alexis, and Peter the Great. The edifice fell into decay after the last monarch removed the court to the marshes on the Neva; but it was repaired and rendered habitable by Paul the First, who wished perhaps to make Moscow a second time, the capital of the empire. The cathedrals of the Assumption, the Archangel Michael and the Virgin, are all of them within the Kremlin. The sovereigns are consecrated, crowned, and married in the first church, Peter II. was the last of the czars who was buried in the second, and the roof of the third is almost wholly covered with gilded copper. These cathedrals are adorned with gold or silver vases, a profusion of pearls, precious stones and other ornaments of antiquated and ordinary workmanship. A silver sconce with forty-eight branches is placed in the Assumption, it weighs seventy pouds, or 2800 English pounds, it was given to the czar by the Dutch. Moses is represented on the top of Sinai, the rays and glory that emanate from Jehovah are of silver, the lawgiver and the mount are of gold. A large chamber in the palace of the czar, is filled with regal crowns, ancient dresses, armour, costly saddles and Tartar harness. The other ten churches within the citadel are remarkable for their gildings, and still more so for the size of their bells, one of which

Bells.

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is called *Iwan Weliki* or *John the Great;* it was cast in 1600, during the reign of Godounof, and it is perhaps the largest of any. Another was cast in the time of the same prince, it weighed upwards of 10,000 pouds (400,000 English pounds.) The tower on which it hung, having been reduced to ashes, the bell was melted a second time, and 2000 pouds were added to it by order of the empress *Anna Iwanawna*, who called it by her own name. The steeple was again destroyed by fire in 1737, and since that time Anna Iwanana has been buried in the ruins. The patriarchal library is kept in the church of the Twelve Apostles; it consists chiefly of Greek and Slavonic manuscripts, which are now covered with dust, or consumed by moths.

Kitaigorod.

The *Kitaigorod* or the *Chinese Town* is so called, because Chinese caravans used to repair to it for commercial purposes. It rises like a crescent round the half of the Kremlin, and although it was almost wholly destroyed during the invasion of the French, it is now completely rebuilt. That quarter of the city may be compared to a perpetual fair on account of its rich bazars that are better stocked than any in Petersburg, and its numerous shops, all of which are under arcades. The public buildings in the Kitaigorod, are the exchange, the treasury or a very large modern edifice, and the famous church of Pokrow, from which the patriarch began his triumphal entrance on an ass, that was led by the czar. Twenty other churches are inclosed within the last building, and all of them are arranged so as to admit enough of light, a proof at least of the architect's ingenuity.

Beloigorod.

The two last divisions are surrounded by the *Beloigorod*, or White Town, which is also called the town of the czar, its first name is derived from the colour of its walls. The whole quarter was nearly burnt to the ground in 1812, but it has been much improved since that time. The largest buildings are the foundery, the arsenal, the university and two gymnasia which are attached to it. The Semlanoi-gorod encompasses the last division, and is sur-

Semlanoi-gorod.

rounded by earthen ramparts and walls, in which were formerly thirty-four wooden and two stone gates, but the latter only remain. A hundred and three churches, the police office, the criminal courts and the foundling hospital, which is the largest and best of its kind in Europe, are situated within the Semlanoi-Gorod. Other edifices might be mentioned in the slobodes or suburbs, but the New Palace, the largest of them all, has not yet been rebuilt. More than a hundred bridges have been erected on the Moskwa, the Neglina and the Jausa; but the water in these rivers is often turbid, and hardly drinkable. An aqueduct was begun by Catherine II., and spring water is now conveyed into the city. The places of amusement are the theatres, public gardens, Russian mountains made of wood and ice, clubs or casinos, concert and assembly rooms. The inns are for the most part frequented by strangers, and few of them are good. The baths on the contrary are commended, and their number exceeds 600. Such is the real capital of the Russian nation, the holy city of the Greco-Russian priests, and the new Jerusalem of their church militant. [1]

Other towns.

Some other towns and burghs in the same government may be enumerated. *Dmitrof* contains 3000 inhabitants, many of whom are employed in different manufactories; but the people reside at great distances from one another, gardens and fields are cultivated within the walls. *Werbitz* is famed for its porcelain, which affords occupation to 200 workmen. *Kolomna* is peopled by 6000 individuals, and built on a height watered by the Moskwa; its trade consists chiefly in tallow and *postilla* or confects made of apples. *Serpoukof* is an agreeable village on the left bank of the Nara, and its sail-cloth is exported to different parts of the empire. *Veraia*, a town of 600 souls, carries on a trade with Moscow. *Moshaisk* on the Mosk-

[1] *Reinbeck's* travels translated and abridged in the *Annales des Voyages*. See also in the same work, the map of the Kremlin. *Richter's* Description of Moscow. (German) *Wichelhusen's* Picture of Moscow. (German) *Lyall's* Account of Moscow. London, 1824.

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wa was destroyed in 1812, but it has been since rebuilt and improved.

Monasteries.

The celebrated monastery of *Troizkaia-Laura* or the Holy Trinity, is about sixty versts to the north of Moscow. The walls are a verst and a half in circumference, thirty feet in height, and eight or nine in thickness; and above them are two covered galleries or arcades, from which the view is much admired. The Poles besieged and attempted in vain to take the convent during two years. Nine churches, many buildings inhabited by the monks, large gardens, and a palace founded by Peter the Great, and enlarged by Elizabeth, are situated within the inclosure. Other five churches and a thousand houses, the property of the convent, have been built without the walls. The monastery is supposed to be the oldest in the empire; it was once inhabited by three hundred monks, who were the lords of 130,000 serfs or peasants. Their annual revenue, it is said, amounted to L.50,000. But, since *the spoliation of the Russian clergy*, as the priests term it, the number of monks was reduced to a hundred, and their income to 20,000 roubles or L.4170. A hundred peasants only are now attached to the establishment. The *New Jerusalem* or the convent of *Woskresensko* is built like the church of the Holy sepulchre at Jerusalem, and not, as several travellers affirm, after the plan of Solomon's temple.

Government of Wladimir.

The government of Wladimir lies to the north-east of Moscow, its soil, climate and productions are nearly of the same nature. Gardening is well understood, but salted and pickled mushrooms are in winter the common food of the lower orders in different districts. The *Kliasma* and the *Occa*, which rolls fragments of gold and other metals, water the country, and form a communication with the Wolga. *Wladimir* or Wlodimir, once a very flourishing town, the residence of the grand dukes of the province, and the founders of Moscow, has fallen into decay, although its twenty-five churches and Archbishop's palace still remain. The inhabitants send cherries, cucumbers and

Rivers.

vegetables to Moscow, but they derive little advantage from their manufactures. The *Swungir* flows at the distance of six versts from the town, and many pebbles, false topazes and jaspers are collected on its banks. Susdal was the first residence of the Wlodimirian dukes, its kremlin or old castle is now in ruins, but it retains its linen and cloth manufactories. The dialect spoken by the people is mixed with Russian and other words in an unknown tongue. *Pereslawl* or *Sa-leskii*, which signifies the town beyond the wood, contains 5000 souls; its trade consists in cloth, silk and leather. The city is built on the banks of lake *Pleschtow*, where Peter the Great had two frigates, in which he studied practical navigation. *Murom* on the Occa was the ancient capital of the Mordvine princes; it is peopled by 7000 individuals, and exports a great quantity of soap and Russian leather. Rich mines of iron are situated at the distance of twenty-five versts from Murom, and at nearly sixty versts from it, are large veins of alabaster, which extend to Nischnei-Novgorod. Sixteen large glasshouses and several manufactories have been built in the district of *Duratschevo*.[k]

Industry and agriculture.

The iron and copper works are in a flourishing state, but little improvement has been made in the agriculture of the province. One or two cows, a wretched horse, and seven or eight lean sheep make up the whole property of a peasant on a noble domain. The serfs of the crown are not so poor, but their cottages are very dirty; a cow and a calf, or a mare and foal are often seen in the hovels inhabited by their owners. The use which is made of the Siberian centaury from Murom to Arsamas, is not generally known in other countries. The largest leaves are collected and dried, they are afterwards applied, as occasion may require, to wounds and scars; in this way, it is affirmed, a wound is more speedily cicatrized and healed than by any other method.

[k] Ephémérides Géograph. of Weymar, XX. p. 225.

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Lake *Poganovo.*

The lake Poganovo appears to have been formed by the sinking of the ground; floating islands are sometimes seen on it, but they only rise to the surface after tempestuous weather.[1]

Government of Jaroslaw.

The northern situation of the government of Jaroslaw renders the climate colder than in the two last provinces. The soil is not of a bad quality, but the grain harvests are never abundant; lint succeeds better, and the art of gardening has been brought to greater perfection than in any other Russian government. The inhabitants of some rural districts gain a livelihood by making stockings, hats and different woollen or linen stuffs. Many individuals emigrate temporarily into other provinces, and obtain employment as gardeners or workmen.

Towns. Industry.

The inhabitants of *Jaroslavl* or Jaroslaw on the Wolga, are perhaps as industrious as any in the Russian empire. The town, before the fire in 1768, contained 6100 houses, 84 churches, and 21,000 souls; its present population amounts to 24,000, the number of houses to 2800, and there are not fewer than 63 churches, of which 44 are built of stone. The linen and silk manufactories are very flourishing, and table linen, Russian leather, linseed oil and many other articles are sent to Petersburg. The school of arts was founded and richly endowed by the celebrated Demidof, and it obtained afterwards the same privileges as the universities.

Government of Kostroma.

Rostow is built on a lake of the same name, where Peter the Great engaged in some skirmishes before he gained his naval victories. The exports are linen, sulphuric acid and minium. Many strangers repair to the different fairs; the number of inhabitants is not less than 6000, and the town was at one time the capital of an ancient dutchy. The population of *Uglitsch* on the Wolga, is equal to 7000 souls, and its commerce consists chiefly in leather, soap and paper. Iron is the staple article in the trade of *Borissoglebsk*, and

[1] Lepekhin's Travels, quoted by Georgi.

the wealth of *Rybensk* depends on its tallow works and linen manufactories. BOOK CIX.

The same industry does not extend to the lofty forests in the government of Kostroma, where the lime grows luxuriantly on the Wetluga, and dark pines cover the wilder banks of the Unscha. The climate becomes sensibly colder as we advance eastwards, and the population, which is greater than in some German kingdoms, exceeds 1,400,000. The habits and occupation of the country people are nearly the same as in the government of Jaroslaw, but the emigration from the province is greater, and the land of the absentees is cultivated by women and children. Kostroma, a town of 9000 souls, is surrounded with earthen ramparts, and the inhabitants export linen, soap and Russian leather. *Makariew-Unsha* is often confounded with Makariew on the Wolga. *Galitsch* on the lake of the same name, contains 6000 souls.

The government of *Nischnei* or *Lower Novgorod* is perhaps the finest province in the Russian empire. Picturesque and varied hills, regular and temperate seasons, a fertile though sandy soil, lofty forests of oaks and limes, abundant crops of corn, good cattle, plenty of fish and game, salt, iron and copper mines, and a position favourable for inland trade, are some of the advantages by which it is distinguished. The largest *sterlets* in the whole of Russia are taken from the Occa, which unites with the Wolga in the same province. A chain of littoral hills, the *Balaklanova-Gora*, extends on the left of the last river. They are well wooded in some places, and in others they are cultivated to the summits, which are between five and six hundred feet above the level of the sea. Calcareous rocks abounding in caverns are situated in the neighbourhood of the Piana, and the name of the river, which signifies *Drunken*, is expressive of the irregular windings, that are probably occasioned by its streams being diverted into cavities. The lake *Tilenina* is often lost in an abyss, but a piece of wood, or any light Government of Nischnei Novgorod.

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body passes through the concealed passage, and is seen again floating on the small river Wad. The fish in the lake *Mandewskoi*, are not easily caught in the net, and it is supposed that they escape into caverns.[m]

Town of Nisch-Gorod.

Nisch-Gorod or *Nischnei Novgorod*, the *Low New town* is distinguished from the ancient Novgorod, and to the name of the last is generally added the adjective *Weliki* or Great. Those who leave the same place for Nischnei Novgorod, sail down the Wolga, and it is for that reason called the low town. It contains 1826 houses and a population of 12,000 souls. The place is one of the great marts for the inland trade, and it is likely to retain that advantage from its central position between the north and south of European Russia, from its vicinity to the mines of Permia, and from its navigation on the Wolga and the Occa. Some of its exports are copper, iron, cordage, tallow and beer, and the three thousand barks that sail to it every year, are manned by 70,000 *burlaki* or boatmen. A great many Persians, Tartars, Bucharians and Chinese meet at the fair of Nisch-Gorod, and the value of the different articles, which are exposed to sale, is rarely less than a hundred millions of roubles. Arsamas, or the second town in the government, is peopled by 8000 individuals; the streets are dirty, and the houses are ill built, but the inhabitants are industrious and comparatively affluent; almost all of them are tradesmen or soapboilers, dyers and shoemakers. The *kraschennina* or blue stuffs which are worn by the women throughout many provinces, are for the most part dyed in the town. A great quantity of potashes is likewise made, but that branch of industry is in the hands of government, and all the forests in different districts are reserved for the use of the works. Hard or old wood is always preferred to young or tender trees, and, as M. Storch observes rightly, the destruction of the forests may in a great mea-

[m] Lepekhin and Pallas quoted by Georgi in his description of Russia. I. p. 276.

sure be attributed to that cause. *Potsckinki* is peopled by 5000 souls, and the inhabitants of *Balakna* export the salt that is obtained from the saline springs in the vicinity. *Paulowa* on the Occa has the appearance of a large village, it contains 6000 inhabitants, and almost every man in the place is a smith or a cutler. Scissors, knives, swords, air-guns, files, planes, locks and padlocks are exported. Many of the last articles are very small, and of admirable workmanship; they are sent into Asia, and each is sold for a rouble. Pogost, another village of the same sort, contains 3000 inhabitants, who carry on a trade in arms.

The population of the government amounts to 1,350,000, and in that number there may be sixty or seventy thousand Tschouvasches and Mordvines, a distinct people, of whom we have already given some account.

Government of Penza.

The government of Penza, which is watered by the Soura and the Moschka, is in many places fertile, the soil is generally rich and of a dark colour; the oak and the nut tree abound in the forests. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants, and their number throughout the province is not less than a million, inclusively of 40,000 Mordvines, and 21,000 Tartars. Leather, glass, potashes and spirits are the principal exports.

Variety of the horse.

Many horses are bred in different parts of the country, and one variety, of a white colour, is covered in winter with a coarse and thick wool.[n] The women make use of different dyes, that are very durable, and they extract them from indigenous plants, or wild madder, *genista* and *serratula*. Iron-works have been erected at *Insara*, and the same metal abounds in different parts of the government. The town of Penza is a place of trade, it stands on a height watered by the Soura, and its population exceeds 11,000 souls. The country on the east of the Soura is covered with forests, and the *brassica oleracea* grows spontaneously on the sandy banks of rivers.

[n] Pallas, Voyages, I. p. 132.

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Saransk, a town of 7000 inhabitants, many of whom are soap-boilers or tanners, and *Krasno-Slobodsk* with its numerous distilleries, are situated in the north of the province.

Government of Tambof.

The southern districts in the government of Tambof are fertile in pasturage, and the oak and the ash are the most common trees in the forests. The soil is poorer in the north, but the pine, the birch, the alder and the lime abound in the woods. The open plains descend for the most part towards the north, and on that account the temperature is colder than might have been inferred from the latitude.

Produce.

Cattle are exported from the province, and the grain raised on it, is sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants; but many natural products are neglected, among others, kermes or Polish cochineal, which may be collected from every oak, and the cantharides or insects that abound on the ash trees.

Population.

The population is equal to 1,400,000, and in that number there are about 300,000 *odnovorzi*, or free husbandmen, the proprietors of their farms. Some of the other inhabitants are Little Russians, Mordvines, and Tartars, who are distinguished from their neighbours by their honesty, knowledge and comparative wealth.[o] The industry of the townsmen is confined to the manufacturing of cloth and linen, to the distillation of strong liquor, and the working of iron. The quantity of the last metal which is smelted in the numerous furnaces belonging to a single individual,[p] amounts to a hundred and twenty or a hundred and thirty thousand *pouds*.[q] The district of Kadom abounds in honey; and flour, cattle, hides, wax and river boats are exported from different parts of the country.

Towns, Steppes.

The Mokscha is the principal outlet for the commerce of the province, it crosses Penza, receives the *Tzna*, which issues from the steppes

[o] Description du gouvernement de Tambof, Journal de Statistique, t. VII. cahier.

[p] These iron works belong to M. Betaschef.

[q] 4,800,000 or 5,200,000 lbs.

on the south of Tambof, and their united streams flow into the Oka. The city of Tambof is peopled by 15,000 individuals, but its trade is insignificant. A steppe or uncultivated plain extends to the south of the town, and affords shelter for game and different wild animals. *Koslow* contains 8000 souls, and its commerce is more considerable; it is situated on the Woronesch, a feeder of the Don, and its rapid course indicates the descent of the ridge. The largest towns towards the north are *Morshansk* on the Tzna, and *Ielatma* on the Oka.

Government of Riæsan.

The uniformity of the central plains is interrupted to a certain extent, in the government of Riæsan. The country to the south of the capital is rich in grain, but the picturesque hills, the shaded and sheltered plains terminate at the banks of the Oka. The northern part of the country is wilder, the numerous lakes in the district of *Iegoriewsk* are encompassed by vast forests, and their waters pass by the Pra into the Oka. Agriculture forms the great occupation of the people, and the quantity of grain produced above what is consumed in the country exceeds two millions of tshetverts.[r] Egyptian barley, or *hordeum nudum* is cultivated in the province, and the large orchards of apple and cherry trees are mostly confined to the central districts.[s] The art of gardening is well understood, and bees' wax, hops, girkins and different vegetables are sent to Moscow. The peasants not only weave the cloth, and make the stockings which they wear, but articles of the same kind are exported and sold to the country people in the neighbouring provinces. An immense number of quails are salted every autumn, and exported in barrels to different parts of the empire. Flax and lint succeed in the northern districts, and many of the villagers are employed in spinning thread, or in making linen.

Lakes in the district of Iegoriewesk.

Gardening.

[r] The poud is equal to forty pounds, and the tshetvert is equal to seven podds and a half.

[s] Postoph, chez les écrivains agronomes Français.

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Tartars in Kasimow.

The population is equal to 1,200,000, but there are no more than 150,000 free peasants. The serfs are not so poor as in many other governments. The number of Tartars in Riæsan is not greater than two or three thousand, and the most wealthy amongst them reside at *Kasimow*, the ancient metropolis of a Tartar principality, and at present a commercial town of 10,000 souls. The Tartars inhabit the upper part of the town, where they have a mosque, and carry on a lucrative trade in fur. Ruins and inscriptions are observed in the neighbourhood.

Town of Riæsan.

Riæsan, although the capital and the ancient residence of the great dukes, contains little worthy of notice; it is ill built, and peopled only by five thousand inhabitants, but the ancient Riæsan, that the Tartars destroyed, was not perhaps situated on the same place. The present town, which was probably built in the 15th century, might have been first known by the name of *Pereslawl-Riæsanski*. Olearius informs us that it is twenty miles distant from the ancient site.[t] Although the direction is not mentioned, it is likely that the former city lay near the confluence of the Istra and the Oka. It was supposed to have been the same as the *Rysa-land* of the fabulous Icelandic *sagas*, but that name is, according to its true meaning, a mythological term, and signifies the land of giants.

Government of Toula.

The government of *Tula* or *Toula* extends along an unvaried and not very fertile plain. Rye, buck wheat, millet and wheat are raised on it, and apples, cherries, peas, cucumbers and other plants grow in the gardens. All the trees common to central Russia are found in the forests, which are by no means extensive. The bees fed on buck wheat and the flower of the lime, yield rich honey. Singing birds are tamed, taught different airs, and exported in great numbers.[u] Lastly, fishing and the chase are

[t] Olearius's Travels in Muscovy, p. 273.

[u] "Near the same stalls were tubs full of pismires crawling among the eggs and over the persons of those who sold them. Both the eggs and the ants are brought to Moscow as food for nightingales, which are favourite though common birds in Russian houses. They sing in every respect as beautifully in

not unprofitable occupations. Such, however, are all the advantages of this petty kingdom. It ought also to have been added that the monotonous plain is cultivated with much care by a numerous population of laborious, docile and obedient serfs. The yoke, it is true, weighs heavily on them; but their rigid masters excuse the severity of their conduct, by alleging that harsh measures are necessary; otherwise the slaves might revolt, for they are apt to imagine kindness or mild treatment, a proof of timidity or weakness. It is not unlikely that they are the descendants of an ancient Finnic race, which peopled the country on the south from Tula to Woronetz. We learn from the work of a well-informed traveller, that the peasants have fair hair like the Finlanders, and differ in their complexion from the Russians, the Cossacks and the Poles.[x] They were probably a branch of the *Wiætitches*, a Finnic people, whose principal settlement was in the government of Koursk, and extended across Orel towards Tula. If we suppose that the nation had made any progress in civilization, the population might have at least amounted to a million of individuals. The sovereign state was subdued by the Russians of Kiow, and the natives speak at present the Russian language.

Wiætitches.

The view of Tula from a distance is not inferior to any other of the kind in Russia, its numerous domes, its chalk edifices shaded by trees, add to its romantic appearance, and when the stranger hears on approaching it the noise of machinery, he is apt to suppose it a commercial town. But the first impression is soon destroyed, the

The town Tula.

cages as in their native woods. We often heard them in the bird shops, warbling with all the fulness and variety of tone, which characterises the nightingale in its natural state. The price of one of them in full song, is about fifteen roubles. The Russians, by rattling beads on their tables of tangible arithmetic, can make the birds sing at pleasure during the day; but nightingales are heard throughout the night, making the streets of the city resound the melodies of the forest." Clarke's Travels, Chap. VII.

[x] Clarke's Travels, Chap. XI.

BOOK CIX. streets are narrow, crooked and ill paved, and almost all the houses are built of wood. Peter the First established a manufactory of arms, which affords employment to 5000 men, but the different articles that they make, are of inferior workmanship. The inhabitants amount to 30,000, there is a theatre in the town, and what is rare in Russian cities, the streets are lighted in the evenings. The trade of the place consists partly in the importation of Greek wines, and in the produce of the Levant, both of which are exported to the north of Russia; the other exports are Russian leather, linen, woollen stuffs, cutlery and Prussian blue. Many valuable iron mines are situated in the vicinity, and the ore is found among sand or vegetable mould near the surface of the earth. It is of so rich a kind that the metal is to the ore nearly in the ratio of seventy to a hundred, and the best iron in all Russia is wrought in the works at *Dougna* near Tula.

The other places of any importance are *Bielew* on the Occa, a town of 7000 inhabitants, *Wenew* with 3400, and the village of *Titawa*, which is partly peopled by three hundred silk weavers.

Nobles. The free peasants in the government are not numerous, but there are not fewer than 1800 noble families, a greater number than in the whole of Sweden. A hundred and five persons have the title of princes, and eight only are counts. The proportion in the adjoining government of Kaluga is less remarkable, for there are thirty-six counts and only sixty-one princes. The Kiovian families that settled in these provinces at the time of the conquest, and the Finns that were not reduced to slavery, may enable us to account for the great number of nobles.

Government of Kaluga. If there be any difference between the governments of Kaluga and Tula, it consists in the comparative sterility of the former; in other respects, the climate, produce and soil are the same. The people are equally industrious, and the inhabitants of inconsiderable towns are employed in manufacturing paper, fine linen or sail cloth, in dressing leather, and in making glass. The largest iron works in

all Russia are those of *Ugodka*; arms and heavy ordnance are founded in them, but the metal used is not of a very good quality. Kaluga on the Occa, contains 25,000 souls, it is not less than ten versts in circumference, but the greater part of it is ill built. Fourteen hundred workmen are employed in manufacturing sail cloth, and a trade is carried on in military saddles, pottery and boxes or ornaments made of inlaid wood. The same place is noted for its caviar, a great quantity of which is exported. The population of *Kozelsk* amounts to 3500, the streets are straight and broad, and the town is better built than many others in Russia. *Borowsk*, on the contrary, is wholly built of wood, but it is, with the exception of the capital, the most important of any in the province. The greater proportion of its 6000 inhabitants labour in different manufactories. Hemp and flax succeed in the government, but they are frequently destroyed by the camelina. Many foresters protect the trees, and their labours are rendered easy by the religious processions of the Greek priests, who sprinkle holy water round the woods, and prohibit the villagers from cutting them.[y] The largest forests are situated in the district of Mechtschof.

Government of Orel.

The uniformity of the central plains is interrupted in the government of Orel; the calcareous hills are separated by deep vallies, the soil is more fruitful, and the system of husbandry nowise inferior to that in the two preceding provinces. It is, on the whole, one of the most productive governments in the empire, and the excess of grain above what is necessary for the consumption of the people, is not less in ordinary seasons than five or six millions of tschetverts. Wheat and barley are the chief articles of exportation. Almost every man is devoted to husbandry or the rearing of cattle, consequently much improvement has not been made in the different manufactures. That branch of industry is in some measure rendered superfluous by the

[y] Travels of Sujew, quoted by Georgi.

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absence of luxury, and the simple and frugal habits of the people. Glass and iron are, in addition to the agricultural produce, the only articles that are exported, for no more leather is prepared in the different tan works, than what is used in the province. The word Orel is pronounced as if it were written *Oriol* or *Ariol*, which signifies an eagle, and from *orelowa*, the genitive plural of the same noun, is derived the adjective *orlowskaia*. The government is thus distinguished by many names, a circumstance which has excited the surprise of travellers, although all of them, it must be admitted, are nearly synonymous. Orel, a town of 20,000 inhabitants, is built after the Russian manner, on the Oka, which might be there navigable for boats, if a great quantity of water were not lost in supplying the mills belonging to the Count Golowin; such inconveniences are by no means uncommon in many provinces. The corn that is exported from Little Russia to Petersburg is deposited in Orel. *Ieletz*, which contains 8000 souls, and *Briansk*, a town of 5000 inhabitants, carry on a trade in wheat and cattle. *Bolchow*, the second city in the government, is peopled by 14,000 individuals, and its commerce consists chiefly in leather and woollen stuffs.

Government of Kursk.

The difference in the climate and productions of Kursk is very obvious. Winter does not last longer than four months; the arbute and the melon ripen, there are besides apples, cherries and plenty of plums; and the fruit of the wild pear tree (the only kind in the government) is made into preserves. Wheat and barley yield about nine-fold, the grain is not dried in ovens, but kept in *silos*, sometimes from six to ten years. The wheat, however, is not unfrequently destroyed by mildew. The meadows are never covered with water, and they afford rich pasturage. The light plough is not used, the oxen in the country are large and strong. The population is not so widely dispersed as in the other provinces, and the labourers are not so unfortunate. Thus the inhabitants amount to a million and a half, but there are not fewer than 320,000 odnovorzi or

free peasants, all of whom are Little Russians.[z] The greatest disadvantage in this government, as in the last, is the want of a navigable river. The *Seim* or the *Sem* appears a large river on the map, as well as the *Desna*, into which it falls, but their streams are not very deep, and navigation is obstructed in many places by numerous mills. The bad quality of the water exposes the inhabitants to *tœnia*, and the cattle to *fascia hepatica*.[a]

Towns.

The fortifications of Kursk have been changed into gardens and public walks, and the number of inhabitants has increased to 20,000. Wax, tallow and cattle are exported from it to Petersburg and Moscow; but its fire wood is imported from Orel. A great fair is held every year at the hermitage of *Korenaia Pustina*, which is also a place of resort on account of its miraculous image. The horses, cattle and different articles, which are sold at the fair, amount in value to five millions of roubles. *Michailowka* belongs to Count *Scheremetew*, who lets about 1000 houses to five or six thousand free Little Russians, some of whom travel about the country and sell their wares, while others are employed in manufacturing them. *Putiwl* contains 10,000 souls, and is the second town in the government. The extensive ruins of an ancient city surrounded by *Kurgans* or sepulchral hills, are situated on the banks of the Swapa. A great quantity of cloth is manufactured at *Gluschkova*, and although *Korotscha* is not a place of trade, its population exceeds 9000 souls. *Belgorod*, a town of 8000 inhabitants, was at one time the capital of the government, it is sometimes confounded with another place of the same name, which was built in the neighbourhood of Kiew by Wladimir in the year 900. The former was not founded before the year 1597, and it is uncertain if it be the same as *Sarkel*, the white city of the Chazares, for there might have been many *white* towns in a country abounding in hills of chalk.

Itinerant merchants.

[z] Larionow, Description du gouvernement de Kursk.

[a] Sujew, quoted by Georgi, p. 599.

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Government of Woronesch.

It remains for us to give a short account of another government in Great Russia, that of Woronesch or Voronez, the southern half of which is wholly peopled by Little Russians. The total population amounts to 1,400,000, and the number of odnovorzi to 500,000; the nobles in the province are not very numerous. The climate is as mild, humid and variable as in the country of the Donian Cossacks. The atmosphere in summer is cooled by frequent storms, and the air is sometimes darkened by dense mists. Corn abounds, the plum, the arbute and the melon thrive, but the grape ripens only in very warm seasons. Tobacco and *capsicum annuum* are cultivated, and wild asparagus grows to the thickness of a man's finger.

Climate and productions.

The land in some districts is very fertile, and others are covered with large forests of oaks, that may soon be used in the naval stations on the Black Sea. The inhabitants are exposed to great inconvenience from the badness of the water, which is hard, disagreeable to the taste, and flows through a calcareous country. The Don crosses the government, and receives the Woronesch, on which large vessels might sail in winter, but it is scarcely navigable for boats in summer.

Syphilis is perhaps the most prevalent disease in Woronesch and in many other Russian provinces, but it is cured by a heroic remedy, namely, sublimate of mercury dissolved in strong spirits.

Town of Woronesch.

The town of Woronesch on the river of the same name, contains 12,000 inhabitants, some of whom are employed in different vitriol and soap works, and others in manufacturing cloth, or in dressing leather. Peter the Great erected there the first dock yards for building ships in Russia, and a large botanical garden was cultivated in the neighbourhood by order of the same prince, but it is now overgrown with oaks, forest trees and underwood. Many *Zigeunes* or Gypsies wander in different districts, they are so numerous that an English traveller considers them the predominant race. The other towns

are not large, Ostrogoschk, which is next to the capital, contains only 4000 inhabitants, and among them are some German colonies. It is affirmed that the tobacco pipes made by these settlers are not inferior to any in Holland.

The Divni Gori.

The right bank of the Don near the confluence of the Sosna, is covered with chalk hills of a remarkable appearance, some of them resemble columns or pillars; the Russians call them the *Divni Gori* or strange mountains. The monks belonging to the ancient monastery of *Divingorskoi*, built their subterranean cells and chapels in different parts of the hills.

Fossil bones.

The bones of large animals, teeth, jaw bones, ribs, vertebræ and others have been observed on the banks of the Don at thirty versts from Woronesch. Some of them are entire, others are partly decomposed. They occupy a space of eighty yards in length, and descend to the depth of three below the ground. Whoever has seen the skeletons of elephants, might readily conclude that they are the remains of these animals.

BOOK CX.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. Sixth Section. Provinces of Little Russia. Manners and Customs of the Russians.

BOOK CX.

Historical remarks.

THE nature of the subject, and the uniformity of the country, may have rendered our account of Great Russia, and the topographical details into which we have entered, tedious and uninteresting. But another task of the same kind remains. We have still to describe Little Russia or the four governments of *Kiev*, *Tchernigof*, *Pultava*, *Charkof*, to these shall be added the former Polish provinces of Podolia and Volhynia, because the great majority of the inhabitants are Little Russians by origin, and they still adhere to the rites of the Greek church. These causes may account for the great success of the Russians in their invasions of the late Polish republick, which was chiefly composed of provinces wrested from Russia or from the great dukes of Galitch, Vladimir, Volynski, Polotzk and particularly Kiow, by Boleslas the Victorious, Casimir the Great, kings of Poland, and by Gedimin, great duke of Lithuania. All the peasants were Rousniacs or Little Russians, ignorant of the language and customs of Poland; they abandoned their lords without reluctance, and received willingly the Russian soldiers and their countrymen, who spoke the same dialect as themselves. The same people were persecuted by intole-

rant Catholic priests, who disregarded the *constitutions* of the Polish diet. Thus the nobles were the only persons interested in the defence of provinces, whose inhabitants were estranged from the Poles, although they had remained under their government from the time of the conquest. The division of Poland was on the part of Russia not so much a lawless invasion as an act of reprisal on former invaders. Had the leading historical facts been explained in the Russian manifesto, which was circulated in 1772, so much obloquy might not have been attached to their conduct.

Physical description.

Little Russia and the Polish Ukraine make up a country of 32,156 square miles, or 6425 square leagues, and the population is not less than 9,200,000 individuals, who are almost equally distributed on the banks of the Dnieper. The country is lower than the central table land of Russia, and the promontories of the Carpathians that bound it on the east and the west. The Ukraine forms a great plain varied only by inconsiderable heights. The Dnieper, which marks the lowest line, divides it into two parts, and the western banks of the river are in most places low and marshy. The two governments of *Tchernigof* and *Pultava*, and the western half of *Charkof* form a sloping plain that rises gradually from the banks of the Dnieper to the central ridge of Russia. The line, at which the plain terminates, and the ridge begins, has not been accurately determined; it is known, however, that it crosses and does not circumscribe the basins of the rivers. The whole of Tchernigof, with the exception of some belts of chalk and sand, is covered with a layer of dark and rich land. The eastern half of Charkof forms the extremity of the central ridge, it may be compared to a steppe with a gentle declivity towards the basin of the Don. The soil is sandy and not very fruitful. The country is much more varied on the Polish bank of the Dnieper, and hills from a hundred to a hundred and fifty feet in height, bound the course of the river in the government of Kiew, in which there are many picturesque

Plains and ridge.

BOOK CX.

views, although the greater part of the country consi[redacted]ts of large plains. The hills that extend from the fal[redacted]ls of the Dnieper, cross the south of the province, and divide[redacted] the streams and rivers. The Ross, the Moszyn and T[redacted]ias-min enclose within their branches, which are united[redacted] by lakes, a sort of delta near Czerkassy, the ancient capital [redacted] of the Cossacks. The land in that part of the country [redacted] is fruitful and covered with rich herbage, it is also the low-

Hills.

est in all the Ukraine. The hills of *Nedoborschetz* in Podolia are five hundred feet above the level of the Black Sea, they are a branch of the ridge *Biecziad*, that extends across Red Russia to the east of Lemberg, and abounds in lakes of which the elevation has not been measured. Other chains connected with the Biecziad mountains penetrate into Volhynia, but are nowhere higher than 350 feet. Numerous cascades and romantic vales in the hilly country of Podolia have been described by travellers; but we are convinced from the examination of the maps recently drawn on the different districts,[a] that the apparent inequalities in the province are chiefly occasioned by deep vallies and the confined beds of rivers. The hills and plains in the three governments are covered with a layer of dark and rich mould, but the soil in Podolia is mixed with a greater quantity of argil, and sand is less uncommon in Volhynia; the northern part of the last province is connected with the wide marshes in the former Polesia.

Rivers.

Almost all the streams and rivers in the two Ukraines serve to enlarge the Dnieper. The *Desna*, which flows on the left or towards Russia, is joined by the Sem, and crosses the whole of Tchernigof, the *Sula*, the *Psiol*, the *Worskla*, which waters Pultava and the north-west of Charkof, the Oriel, that marks the frontier of Pultava on the right or Polish side, the *Pripetz* or outlet of all the marshes in Polesia, the *Tetirew* and the *Ross* fall into the great central river, of which the navigation is unfor-

[a] Atlas of Podolia. See the Statistics of Marczynski.

tunately broken by waterfalls. The rivers in Podolia are the feeders of the Bug and the Dneister.

Climate and productions.

The climate is not very different in either of the Ukraines, the eastern districts of Charkof, and the northern of Tchernigof form an exception, and perhaps are more connected with the climate of Kursk. The rivers never freeze before the month of December, and are always open by the end of February, but the north-east and sometimes the west wind are the harbingers of sudden and intense cold. The rivers are drained by the summer's heat and the total absence of rain. The stagnant waters generate different diseases, and swarms of grasshoppers are then scattered over the country from the valley of the Dneister to the fields of Volhynia. The climate is admirably adapted for every kind of grain, and the ordinary return is as ten to one. The plough is the only instrument that is used, and the lands set apart for corn, are never manured. The fertile meadows are covered with trefoil and lucerne, and the oxen in the Ukraine are little inferior to the Hungarian or the best in Europe; the horses are much larger and stronger than in Russia.[b] The apple, pear, cherry and plum trees are covered with fruit, which is exported in its raw state, or made into preserves and liqueurs. There is no scarcity of tobacco, cochineal, wax and honey; the fine oaks in the Ukraine are used in building ships, but some districts, particularly in Poltava and Charkof, are ill supplied with wood. Plantations of mulberries thrive in different parts of the country, the vine is cultivated in the neighbourhood of Kiew and Nejin, but the grapes are acid and unpleasant to the taste. We shall enter into the details connected with these general observations, when we give an account of the provinces.

Inhabitants.

The people are not degraded by slavery in the Russian Ukraine. The Malo or Little Russians, who make up the mass of the community, enjoy personal freedom; they are

[b] Levasseur de Beauplan.

BOOK CX. either *odnovorzi* (petty proprietors,) or *posadki* consisting (free husbandmen.) They are frank, hospitable and [illegible] gay, their happiness is seldom disturbed by worldly cares [illegible] and their affluence is proportionate to their industry. The [illegible] nobles are for the most part of Polish or Great Russian origin, they have no slaves, and are distinguished rather by the virtues than the vices of their order. The burgesses and traders have not to contend against the children of Abraham, and a Jew cannot settle in the country without making himself liable to severe penalties. The Polish Ukraine is very different; it is true that the peasants are not less gay, but they are poor and wretched, all of them are covered with rags, and inhabit dirty cottages. Although their bondage is less rigid than in Great Russia, it is sufficient to weaken the energy of their character. The petty nobles are Poles, and form the next class above the peasantry. The great proprietors, though the lords of extensive domains, are often poor, and all classes of society are under the thraldom of the Jews, who swarm in the towns and in the country, and are more destructive than the grasshoppers, for the ravages of the last are only temporary.

Topographical description.

The town of Kiew is not only geographically, but politically the central point of the Ukraines. It was once the first town in Russia, a long time the pantheon of the Slavonic divinities, and at a later period, the holy city of the Greek Christians. The Great Russians call it Kiow, and it is still one of the most remarkable places in the empire. It stands on the right bank of the Dnieper, rises on several hills, and its quadruple enclosure encompasses four distinct divisions. *Podol* or the low town, the residence of tradesmen and burgesses, is situated on the banks of the river, and adorned by an imperial palace and several public buildings, of which the largest is the university. All the professors are monks, who make a vow never to eat animal food, but most of them contrive to elude or break their oath. The college is known by a very long Latin name,[c] and it is generally attended by more than

[c] Academia orthodoxa Kiovo-Mohilæano-Zaboromskiana.

1500 students. The edifices most worthy of notice in the *High Town* or *Old Kiew* are the cathedral, which is perhaps the richest of any in Russia, and the monastery where the metropolitan of Kiew, Kalitsch and Little Russia resides; the other houses are chiefly inhabited by monks. *Vladimir*, another quarter, was founded by Catharine the Second, but the whole of it is not yet inhabited. *Petscher* or the citadel is regularly fortified, and commands every part of the city except a small portion of the high town. The different ministerial offices, the barracks and the famous convent of Petscherskoi, in which are deposited the bones of a hundred and fifty martyrs, are situated near the fortress.[d] The most of the houses that form the *slobode*, which extends to the base of the citadel, belong to the convent. The total population amounted in 1802 to 40,000 souls, but it has rapidly increased of late years.[e] Apricots, peaches and in some seasons grapes ripen in the imperial gardens; but *wymorosli* or the national drink, is a sort of verjuice or imperfect wine.

Government of Charkof.

The government of Charkof or Kharkof, one of the three on the east of the Dnieper, contains several flourishing towns, among others, the capital of the same name, with a population of 15,000 souls, *Achtyrka* and *Sumi*, each of which is peopled by 12,000 individuals, and two others of ten thousand inhabitants, or *Tchougoniew* and *Bielopoli*. The trade of these places consists for the most part in spiritous liquors, leather and woollen stuffs. The mulberry thrives in the neighbourhood of Kharkof, and a small grape without stones, and of an acid flavour, arrives at maturity in the gardens of *Isium*. Much corn is consumed in the numerous distilleries, still the quantity exported from the province varies from two to three millions of *tshetverts*. The land owners pay great attention to the breed of horses and sheep, but the latter are subject to the *mokilitza*, a contagious disease by which

Grapes in the gardens of Isium.

[d] Herbinius, Religiosæ Kiovenses cryptæ. Jenæ, 1675.

[e] Russischer Merkur, 1805, article second, page 148.

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thousands are destroyed. Numerous flocks of pigeons, the property of no master, are seen throughout the country. Different kinds of pulse are cultivated, and asparagus grows spontaneously on the steppes. *Quas*[illegible] a national drink, is made from the wild apple, *wischnewka* from cherries, and *ternewka* from mazzards and plums, which they are pleasant to the taste, and not unwholesome. The Jews are suffered to remain in the country, and the indulgence of the inhabitants towards them is one of the greatest evils to which the province is exposed. The town of Kharkof is the seat of one of the seven Russian universities, and it possesses besides several libraries, museums, and academical collections.[f]

Government of Pultava.

The extensive and monotonous vallies in the government of Pultava may be shortly described. It is difficult to say much concerning wide plains covered with fruits and every kind of grain. The vine might perhaps be cultivated, but the prospect is nowhere varied by woods or forests. White honey and *girka*, or a sort of early barley without spikes, the *tribulus aquaticus* that abounds on the marshes of the Dnieper, and Polish cochineal, with which many oaks are covered, may be mentioned among the productions of the government. The *anas cygnoides* or blue Caspian goose, and the *anas boschas* or Persian duck are not uncommon in the poultry yards, and the pelican, the red duck and the *ardea virgo* are observed among the wild birds. It appears from the calculation of M. Hassel that the population exceeds two millions, the government is therefore after Moscow, Kaluga and Kursk, the most populous of any in Russia, the inhabitants are chiefly composed of *Malo-Russians*, and the greater number are devoted to agriculture.

Towns, Monuments.

None of the towns are of much importance, *Pultava* or *Pultawa*, the capital, is peopled by 10,000 souls, and is chiefly remarkable on account of its monument in honour of Peter the Great, and the victory from which the Russians date the commencement of their military

[f] Topografitchii Opisanie Kharkowskoi Namestnischestwa.

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glory. A pillar has been erected over the graves of the Swedes, who were interred in the field of battle. *Periaslavl*, which contains 8000 souls, was at one time the residence of Russian princes. The sandy plains covered with *herniaria glabra*, extend to *Krementchuk*,[g] a town of 8000 inhabitants, several of whom are *Rosnoliki*, others are German colonists, and many are employed in different manufactories. The gay and cheerful villages are inadequate for the numerous population, and a great number of individuals reside in caravans and clay cottages.[h] The government of Tchernigof is less monotonous than the last, but its produce is not different, and the stranger observes the same crops, the same fruit and the same pasturage as in Pultava; but several districts are well wooded, coniferous trees are common in the forests, and ratifia and other liqueurs, particularly *woschnowska*, are made from the different kinds of cherries, that abound in the province. *Tchernigof* or *Tchernigou*, the ancient metropolis of a duchy, is peopled by 10,000 souls; but *Neschin* or *Nejin* is generally considered the most commercial city in the Ukraine, the inhabitants amount to 16,000, it possesses several silk manufactories, and carries on a great trade in Greek wines, Crimean salt and other articles, that are exported from Asia and the Archipelago. Merchants from Poland and the remote provinces of Russia repair to its fairs. Gluckow contains 9000 individuals, and the population of *Novgorod-Seversk* is less than 8000, but it was once the chief town in the principality of Severia. The capital of Kiew has been already mentioned, most of the other towns are insignificant. Neither *Uman* and its stately castle, nor Tcherkassy, the ancient metropolis of the Cossacks, contains more than 3000 souls. The nobility reside at their country seats, and the cottages in the villages, although neatly painted, are constructed of clay and the branches

Government of Tchernigof.

Trade of Nejin.

Government.

[g] *Krementchuk* is derived from *kremen*, a flint, there are extensive beds of flint in the cretaceous hills on the banks of the Dnieper.

[h] Heym cited by Georgi.

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of trees. The Jews monopolize the retail trade, they are the landlords of almost all the inns, and their houses are more substantially built.

Government of Podolia.

Although Podolia, according to its new limits, is much diminished, it is still the most fruitful province in the Polish Ukraine. Many sheep and fattened oxen are every year exported, and so much corn is raised above what is consumed by the inhabitants, that it is often difficult to find a market for the redundant produce. The average return of wheat in the neighbourhood of Ussitza is as fifteen to one. The forests which abound in oak, terminate near a line drawn from Raschkow on the Dnieper to Uman.[i] The land is indented by the vallies through which the rivers flow, and varied by waterfalls, caverns and romantic landscapes.[k] Beds of alabaster, gypsum and schistous argil extend in different directions, and the vine grows in espaliers in the orchards and gardens. The Podolian tobacco is the best in Russia, and forms the source

Animals.

of a lucrative contraband trade. The peasants have many hives, fish abound in the rivers, the saiga, a sort of gazelle, the souslik, a species of rat, and the stork are the most common wild animals in the province. *Kaminic* or *Kamenetz* with its castle on a rock is still a fortress, but its military importance was lost when Choczim and Bender became Russian towns; its population does not exceed 6000 souls, and it is the residence of the provincial authorities. The commerce of the country appears to be concentrated in *Mogelew* and *Szarygrod*, the former possesses 7000, and the latter 6700 inhabitants. *Bar* and *Turgowiez*, which have acquired a sad celebrity in the history of Poland, were the seats of two confederations. A colony of German manufacturers has been established near the large castle of *Tulczyn*, and the industry and ability of these foreigners enable them to contend with advantage against the other inhabitants. *Iskorest*, which is near the sources of the Bog, was once the capital of the *Drewlians*, a Sla-

[i] Tableau de la Pologne.

[k] See the views in the Atlas of *Marczynski*.

vonic people. The population of the whole province, according to the old tables of M. Marczinski, was equal to 93,000 nobles, 136,000 Jews, 197,000 Christians of the Latin, and 838,000 of the Greek Church; although it must have considerably increased since these tables were published, the relative proportions may have remained the same.

Government of Volhynia.

Volhynia or Wolhynia, which extends to the north of Podolia, is not less fruitful, and the mildness of the climate is partly owing to the low level. The vine does not succeed, but the temperature is not nearly so cold as in Swabia and Franconia. The chalky soil produces plenty of millet, secale, and wheat, which is heavier, and yields a greater quantity of flour than any other in Poland.[l] Iron, mill-stones, procelain and saltpetre are wrought in the country, and amber has lately been obtained in the neighbourhood of Dubno. The pastures are abundant, and the lakes are shaded by lofty forests. Rosemary, asparagus and hops grow in a wild state, and are of a good quality. The *urus* is sometimes seen in the solitary forests on the north-west.[m]

Towns.

Most of the towns in Volhynia are ill built, *Berdyczew* or the largest is peopled by ten thousand individuals, but they are mostly Jews. All the inhabitants are very filthy, and the Israelites more so than the rest. Some German and Russian merchants amass wealth in the town, but they do not live differently from their neighbours. Dubno contains five or six thousand inhabitants, and it is frequented by the Polish nobility in the Ukraine, who meet there to enter into contracts, and to settle their commercial transactions. Jitomirz or the present metropolis has been embellished by government, but its population is not equal to five thousand souls. *Wodzimierz* or Wlodomir is now wholly inhabited by Jews, and it has given its name to the "kingdom of *Lodomiria*," which still forms a part of the

[l] Rzacynski's Natural History, p. 294.

[m] Aperçu général de la Volhynie et de l' Ukraine, Pétersbourg, 1804.

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Territory of the Order of Malta.

Russian empire, although it was claimed by Austria in 1772. *Ostrog* is the capital of the country assigned to the knights of Malta, there is no other society in Europe which possesses so large a territory, it has, however, been divided among a few powerful individuals. Their province is the adoptive country of the Lubomiriski and Czartoriski, two illustrious Polish families, that were enriched by the ancient, and impoverished by the recent conquest of Malo-Russia. The Polish nobles in Volhynia are supposed to amount to 60,000 individuals.

We have now concluded the topographical account of Great and Little Russia. The task, we are well aware, was not an agreeable one, but it was difficult to avoid repetition, from the nature of the subject, and the resemblance between different provinces. We shall next offer some remarks on the moral and civil condition of the people that inhabit these regions.

Difference between the Great and Little Russians.

The German writers pay little attention to the difference between the Great and Little Russians, and suppose incorrectly, that they are now confounded, or form one and the same people. But the Little Russians or more ancient inhabitants retain their national physiognomy, and are easily distinguished by their finer features, dark and hazel eyes, loftier stature, and more harmonious language. The Great Russians, who are scattered over the wide territory inhabited by the Huns and Finns, must have necessarily mingled more with these races, which are essentially different from the Slavonic; hence the red or yellow hair, the coarser features, and the stupid expression of the Great Russian peasants. Their moral character is not the same. The Great Russian is selfish, cunning and avaricious, devoted to the chicanery of trade, and regardless of probity or faith with strangers. Peter the Great said truly, that had he allowed the Jews to enter his empire, they might have become the dupes of his subjects. The Little Russian, on the other hand, is indolent, confiding and generous, he never thinks of the morrow, enjoys

his mild climate, and seldom labours, unless compelled by necessity; he commits the management of his affairs to Jews, Greeks and Great Russians, who are always ready to impose on his simplicity. Although the Malo-Russians were long oppressed by the Poles, they are free, and not degraded, like the Great Russians, by the absence of those virtues which are incompatible with a state of bondage. The free and fierce nation of the Cossacks has been modified by its intercourse with strangers, but it is sprung from the Malo-Russians. The Weliko-Russian, on the contrary, has been fashioned for the yoke by the lapse of ages, and by his connexion with the Finns; still he is not always passive, his resistance, although often founded on frivolous pretexts, is obstinate and savage. It is not easy to contrast different nations, and the difficulty is increased in the present instance by the extent of the country, the number of inhabitants, and the inaccurate observations of travellers.

Freedom and Slavery.

The Russian peasants can support great fatigue, but they have not the same muscular strength as the people in some northern states. The privations of the peasantry, the long and painful marches of armies, and the severity of corporal punishments, are the almost incredible examples of what a Russian can endure. The soldier is often compelled to traverse desert steppes in which no water is found, or to pass the winter in subterranean huts without fire, and with no other provision than dry biscuit. A criminal, after suffering torments of which the very sight is appalling, returns to his prison without support, and without any apparent change in his gait. The muscular force of the Russians in the north, does not correspond with what may be termed their passive strength. A greater number of hands are employed in Russia than in other countries, to raise a weight, or to carry a burden. An English sailor often does more work in Petersburg than three stout natives. They may perhaps be more indolent, but the real cause is the want of vigour and activity, an indication

Force and patience of the Russians.

BOOK CX. of their Finnic descent. The Russians are not a tall people, and although rarely well proportioned, few of them are deformed, which may perhaps be owing to their open and unconfined dress, the great exercise that they take, and the fact that weak children generally fall a sacrifice to the hardy way in which they are brought up.

Appearance. The characteristic traits vary, but most of the Russians have white teeth, small and dull eyes, a narrow forehead and strong beard. The hair is of every shade from the dark chesnut to the red; but it is rarely black, stiff and shining, a deformity which is confined to the descendants of the Huns, Laplanders and Woguls. The last remark might be easily verified by travellers. The Russians have quick ears, their other senses are not improved by the climate and their manner of life; thus impaired vision is commonly attributed to the continuance of the snow, and a vitiated taste to the nature of their food.

Women. A fine skin and a fresh complexion are, in the opinion of the natives, all that is necessary in female beauty. It cannot be denied that the Russian women have a brighter complexion than the inhabitants of other countries, and yet it is equally true that rouge is nowhere employed in such profusion as in Russia; it is not confined to the higher orders, it is used by every class in the community. The women are not incased in stays, and such is the effect of prejudice, that strangers consider their waists too large, and out of proportion with the rest of the figure. Girls are marriageable at the age of twelve or thirteen, and according to the common opinion, the effect of climate is counteracted by the frequent use of vapour baths, which, if they accelerate the developement of the body, bring on infallibly the marks of premature old age. The charms of youth soon disappear, and the women rarely retain their looks a few years after their marriage. Whatever may be the cause, whether the immoderate use of rouge and the vapour bath, or rather the savage tyranny of their husbands, the remains of beauty are often no longer discerni-

ble at an age when the other sex is hardly arrived at manhood.

Marriage ceremonies.

The singular and strange marriage ceremonies of the Russians are now partly abolished. It was customary for two families to settle an alliance before the parties had seen each other. The bride was then examined by a council of elderly matrons, who took off her clothes, indicated her bodily defects, and prescribed what was necessary to correct them. The lady was crowned on the day of her wedding with a garland of absinth, and when the priest tied the nuptial knot, the clerk sprinkled a handful of hops on her head, and expressed a wish that she might be as fruitful as that plant. The last ceremony is not abolished. Those who visit a woman after she has been in travail, must slip a piece of money under her pillow; the sum varies according to the wealth or rank of the individual, and it is only exacted from married persons, because they, it is supposed, may one day profit by the custom. That practice is still common in central Russia; it is observed by all the inhabitants of Moscow, but it is no longer in use at Petersburg.

Funerals.

The opinions which the catholics entertained about two centuries ago, concerning the soul after death, were not more absurd than the present notions of the people in Russia. When a man dies, a priest is hired, who prays over the corpse, purifies it with incense, and sprinkles it with holy water, until it is consigned to the dust. The priest writes a passport for heaven, which is signed by the bishop, and in his absence by some other dignitary. The paper is put into the bier between the hands of the deceased, and the lowering of the coffin into the grave is the signal for loud cries and horrid yells. The attendants return to the house of the defunct, and forget their grief at a feast, which is kept up by the higher orders for forty days. The priest delivers prayers over the grave during the period of festivity; for although the people do not believe in purgatory, the dead, it is imagined, are consoled by these exor-

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cisms, and arrive with less fatigue at the end of their long journey.

Religious festivals.

The pompous ceremonies and rigid fasts of the Greek church are strictly observed by the people and the nobles. A dismal lent is succeeded by the festival of the resurrection, and the fasting and mourning are soon forgotten in mirth and amusement. The majestic spectacle has been described by travellers. The noise of sonorous bells is compared to the rolling of distant thunder; the lustre of many thousand wax lights, and the dazzling splendour of the clerical costume add to the novelty of the scene. Joy reigns, and the cry of *Christos voskress*, Christ is resuscitated, resounds throughout the empire. Such a festival is not uninteresting, although the noise, parade and ostentation accord ill with our religious notions. The Greek church accommodates itself to the habits of a sensual nation, and sanctions whatever may diminish the privations of a rigorous climate. The relaxed state of clerical discipline is less excusable; the *popes* or fathers grant absolution to any that ask it, and many priests are tainted with the gross vices of the people. The nobles wear crosses and amulets, which they call their gods, and superstition is substituted for piety.

Heathen ceremonies.

Some heathen ceremonies of a harmless nature are still observed in Little Russia. The twenty-fourth of June is the festival of *Koupo*, the young then assemble round a tree decorated with ribbons, and a table covered with sweetmeats. The anniversary of *Koliada* is celebrated in the month of December, and national songs are sung in the towns and in the country.[n]

Dress.

The dress of the peasantry in Little Russia does not differ from that of the Poles, and the *kourtka* is worn with the *charavaris* or wide pantaloon. The costume of the peasants in Great Russia is different. Sheep skins descend in winter to the middle of the leg, and a cloth coat is attached by a girdle in summer. The stockings are

[n] MS. notes of M. Choris.

made of cloth, the shoes of bark; a round hat is common in summer, and a fur cap in winter. The neck is always bare, a very strange custom in so cold a climate, but it is not unfavourable to health. A knife and a hatchet are suspended from the girdle.

Dress of the women.

The women, at one time adored, at another treated like slaves,* contrive to vary and embellish their costume. The *sarafan* or light robe is worn under a pelisse, but the most costly ornaments are reserved for the head-dress. A band, which is adorned with pearls or precious stones of different colours, and resembles a tiara or open crown, is generally worn in Novgorod and the adjoining governments. The peasant girls in the western provinces wear a fillet, like the Spaniards, but it is studded with paste or mock pearls. A sort of bonnet, which rises perpendicularly in the form of a crescent, is not uncommon in Oka and in the neighbourhood of Kasimow. The dress of the women in Little Russia from Voronez to Kiovia and Volhynia, is of a particular character; nets, ribbons and flowers are bound round the head, a chain is suspended from the neck, and red boots correspond with a petticoat of the same colour.

Use of rouge.

The antiquated dames in the ancient court of Versailles, never disguised themselves so effectually with rouge, as the fair Russians of the present day. The mineral compositions which they purchase, are exported from the east and the Levant; but the women among the peasantry are satisfied with a cheaper and less deleterious kind, that is extracted from plants and roots.

Dwellings.

The houses of the peasants are all built after the same plan; the inner court forms an oblong, and is surrounded by sheds; a hay loft is commonly erected at one extremity, and a kitchen garden extends beyond it. The materials for building are trees, that are laid horizontally above each other; the interstices are filled with moss and not with bark, as Mr. Coxe affirms. The family chamber is gene-

* *Bion kak choubou, i loublou kak douchou.* Literally, *I beat you as my slave, I love you as my heart.*

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rally on the second story, though not unfrequently on a level with the ground. The inmates ascend by a stair or ladder; a stove takes up a fourth part of the room, and men, women and children sleep together in a recess or alcove, which communicates with the chamber. The principal apartment forms a square of fifteen or twenty feet, the height varies from six to eight, and the ordinary temperature from 70° to 80° of Fahrenheit.

Furniture.

The furniture consists of wooden wares and earthen pots, indeed it might be difficult to mention a people whose houses are so ill and so scantily furnished. A wretched bed or pallet is a proof of wealth by no means common among the peasantry of the nobles; the serfs of the crown, though not so poor, are equally indifferent about cleanliness or comfort. The meanest cottage and the most sumptuous palace are adorned with figures of the saints; the Russians bow to them when they come into a house, pray to them every evening and morning, prostrate themselves before them, and kiss the ground.

Food.

Pork, fish, soup made of salted cabbage, mushrooms and pepper are ordinary dishes, and they require, it is thought, some glasses of brandy to digest them. But the people have often recourse to a lighter diet, and the inhabitants of many districts live partly on eggs, milk and fruit. The effects of ardent spirits are rendered less deleterious by the great consumption of anti-scorbutic fruits, and of *quas* or light acidulated beer without hops. The *braga* or white beer, and the *wymorosli* or fermented and frozen wine are not very strong, but unwholesome spirits and a variety of sweet liqueurs act as a sort of poison.

Diseases.

The Russians are a healthy people; the diseases prevalent in the country are seldom dangerous, and most of them give way to a light diet and simple remedies. The women bear children without much pain, and the number of still-born infants is not nearly so great in proportion as in some European countries. It appears not only from the writings of travellers, but of Russian authors, that syphilis is common in the towns and in the country, and that the

virulence of the disease, and the chances of contagion are increased by the severity of the climate. It is not easy, however, to reconcile their opinion with the numerous instances of great longevity.

Remedies.

The popular remedies may excite the surprise of our readers. Leeks, onions and Spanish pepper mixed with strong spirits are the great panacea. The nature of the malady is of secondary importance, the cure is equally applicable to all. Vapour baths are prescribed to invalids, certain plants are efficacious against rheumatism, and gunpowder or sublimate of mercury, according to the nature of the complaint, are dissolved in alcohol, and given to the peasantry.

Baths.

The public baths are ill built, and generally situated in the neighbourhood of a stream or river. A court, in which benches are placed, supersedes the necessity of dressing rooms. The temperature of the bathing chamber varies from 104° to 122° of Fahrenheit, but it may be augmented by pouring water every five minutes on the stones of the stove or furnace, and the last step to which the bathers descend is occasionally raised to the temperature of 131°. Many persons, on quitting the bath, plunge into the adjoining river, like the young Romans who swam in the lakes, after leaving the gymnasia. It is not uncommon for a Russian to go out of his vapour bath in winter, and cool himself in the snow, when the thermometer is 10° below zero. Our medical men are not over-cautious in advancing systems, theories and hypotheses, but they have not as yet approved of this custom, which is at least sanctioned by antiquity. The Lacedemonians and the Spaniards on the Douro used "*red-hot stones*" in the same manner as the Russians and Finns of the present day ;[p] and the prejudices against Medea arose probably from a rash attempt to introduce the same custom which she is said to have invented, or rather to have observed among the people in the north.[q]

Vapour baths, known to the ancients.

[p] Strabo, III. p. 154. Celsus, L. II. c. XVII. L. III. c. XXVII.

[q] Bættiger, Vasengemahlde, c. II.

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Amusements.

The amusements of the Russians are now curtailed. The patriarch is no longer conducted on an ass by the czar, and the people no longer shout their *hosanias*. Ambassadors, deputies and the representatives of different governments are not now accompanied by cavalcades of a thousand persons offering presents and tribute to the Autocrat, and receiving in exchange the honourable distinction of wearing robes and caftans. But the Russian delights as much as ever in noisy gaiety, and his admiration of parade is nowise diminished. No Frenchman, and consequently the inhabitant of no other country in Europe, dances or sings so frequently as the Russian. The youth are trained to gymnastic exercises, the old and the grave are often mounted on wooden horses, and indulge in the recreation of the ring, or in the pastime of see-saw.

Russian mountains.

The Russian mountains are common in more than one European kingdom, but those in Russia are superior to all others, in as much as the descent on the ice is safer and more rapid. The natives vary the exercise by descending on their skates, an amusement which is not free from danger, although more extraordinary feats are performed by the Norwegian skaters. Many mountains of the same sort are erected in Moscow during the carnival; they are encompassed with shops, coffee-houses and temporary theatres, in which after-pieces are acted. The inhabitants dance in the open air in the middle of winter.

Domestic industry.

The Russians are more distinguished by their imitative than inventive talents, and the peasants in many districts are obliged to make whatever they require. Ploughs, carts, household furniture, shoes, boots, hats, linen and woollen stuffs, stockings and gloves are all the products of domestic or individual industry in the greater part of central Russia. The nobles turn the mechanical aptitude of their serfs to good account. The master enjoins one to be a mason, a second for the same reason becomes a tailor, and a third is dubbed a painter. Each man labours in his new vocation, and according to the way in which his work is executed, he is rewarded with brandy, or punished with the

lash. The division of labour is no principle in Russian economy; different arts are exercised by the same individual, and the confusion of trades is exemplified in the house market, one of the curiosities which Moscow possesses in common with other great towns. A large square in the suburbs is the place where the market is held, a variety of materials for building, and houses wholly made of wood are usually exhibited. He who wants a house, repairs to the market, tells how many rooms are required, examines the quality of the wood, which is carefully marked, and concludes a bargain. The seller generally agrees to remove and raise the building on the place that the purchaser wishes. Thus it often happens that a house is bought, transported, erected and inhabited within the space of a single week. It must not be imagined that such dwellings are durable; they are seldom habitable any length of time, and it is a very easy task to demolish them in a few hours. Beams and laths, for the construction of brick buildings, stoves, and different articles of furniture, carriages and waggons, are sold in the neighbourhood of the market.

House-markets.

The manner of life, and the habits of the Russians depend in some degree on their civil condition. Other distinctions have been introduced by legal enactments, but the body of the nation is divided into two great classes—the free husbandmen and the slaves. The *odnodvorzi* or the proprietors of small hereditary estates may purchase serfs under a fictitious name, but they are liable to be arbitrarily transported from one province to another. The *posadki* or free farmers cannot possess land, and the freedmen agree to perform statute labour or different services, and grant generally personal obligations for the price of their liberty. The free Russians are chiefly composed of these classes; their wealth varies according to their industry and resources, but few amongst them have to struggle against poverty or want. The peasantry of the crown hold the next rank after the freedmen, and they are divided into serfs of the empire, of the domains and different stations, they are exempt from statute labour, but subject to the *obrok*, a

Different classes of peasants.

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Merchants and tradesmen. Little can be said of one class in the nation, because little is known of the individuals that compose it. Few travellers visit the real Muscovite burgesses, indeed it is more difficult to be admitted into their society than into the circles of a frivolous nobility. The trading citizens are active, sober and indefatigable in the pursuit of gain. They retain the customs which they borrowed many ages ago from the Armenians, the Chinese and the inhabitants of the Hanseatic towns. They are distinguished by the same assiduity in their calling, the same perseverance, and the same minute care in keeping accounts; but they are much more ignorant than the old German burgesses; and it is not to be expected that men of such habits, and who receive so imperfect an education can be at all solicitous about moral or political improvement.

Dress. It is not long since they dwelt in the same sort of houses, wore the same coarse dress, and lived on the same kind of food as the wealthy peasants. But changes have

taken place of late years, and the fat and fair wives of the citizens now indulge in the luxury of tea. The same ladies appear in their droskies on gala days, and display their head-dresses of matted pearls, their diamond ear-rings and fine Turkish or Persian shawls, which descend in light folds to the feet. Those that do not admire the Asiatic dress, wear the embroidered *feredja*, and the national costume is not destitute of elegance or grace.[r] Travellers observe Russian society in the saloons of the nobles, and mix rarely with the citizens or the commercial inhabitants of towns, although the wealth of the latter renders them influential, and although their numbers are rapidly increasing. Much has been said of their Punic faith and fraudulent dealings. But the writers who accuse them so unsparingly and in such vague and general terms, are in all probability ignorant of their character. We ask if great commercial undertakings, long voyages and well-established credit are the fruits of dishonesty. We ask too if the burgesses under *Kosma Minin*, were not as well as the peasantry under Poyarski, and the boyars under Troubetzkoi, the liberators of Russia. Engelhardt of Smolensko, a generous citizen, sacrificed his life in the last war, rather than betray his sovereign and his country.

Clergy.

The sons of the peasants and the burgesses make up the great body of the clergy, and the *popes* are accused by travellers of ignorance, drunkenness and immorality, these accusations are generally exaggerated, and seldom rightly applied. The maxims of the Greek church are as unfavourable to the diffusion of knowledge, as they are conducive to the growth of superstition, and although the priests are imbued with the spirit of their order, they are not without many redeeming virtues.

Marriage of the priests.

The Russian priesthood is almost as widely different from the catholic as it is from the protestant clergy, indeed another order of the same sort is not to be found in Europe, and it is on account of its singularity, not unworthy

[r] Clarke's Travels, I. 92.

BOOK CX. of notice. The marriage of a priest is not only lawful, but indispensable according to the maxims of the church, which takes in the true and literal sense, the famous passage of Saint Paul, and rejects the ingenious but false interpretation of the Romanists. A Russian priest cannot be ordained before marriage, and he is not permitted to espouse a widow or any one guilty of a flagrant crime. If his wife dies, he must resign his living; the bishops of the diocese can, in extraordinary instances, authorize him to continue it, but such acts are irregular, and only justified by the necessity of the case. The secular priest thus deprived of his cure, enters into a convent, and becomes a *hiero-monaque*. It is from these dismal retreats, where penance, fasting and prayer are strictly enjoined, that the bishops and archbishops are commonly chosen. The priests or popes are much respected, nay, many of them are venerated by the peasantry. Their influence is founded on their superior knowledge; they only read the literary and scientific journals published in Russia, and consequently it is from them that information and new discoveries in agriculture and the arts are communicated to the people. The popes as fathers of families have worldly interests, to which the catholic priests, from the opposite nature of their institutions, are supposed to be strangers. A clergyman educates one of his children for the church, another is bred to arms, a third is sent into the navy, and some distinguished naval officers are the sons of curates. The connexion, on the other hand, between the secular priesthood and the monks, renders the former more venerable in the estimation of the people. The austere and simple manners, the unfeigned charity and godly lives of several archbishops are cited in order that others may be roused to imitate them. The dignitaries of the Russian church are now desirous of cultivating their talents and acquiring knowledge; their inferiors are eager to follow their example, and the indiscriminate censure of travellers is no longer applicable to most of them.

Nobles. It is difficult to give an impartial account of the Russian

nobility; the degrading vices, the scandalous anecdotes and the unfavourable opinion, which almost every traveller has formed of that class, are apt to bias our judgment. But these strangers are not impartial, and their contradictions are so apparent that we cannot place much confidence in their statements. Thus, one writer calls them "sharpers and pickpockets," another laughs at "their credulity and simplicity," a third observes "a Scythian ferocity in their manners," and a fourth discovers "the abject servility of the Neapolitans." That the hideous character made up of such opposite qualities must be fabulous, is at least some consolation in contemplating it. We ourselves have known very worthy Russian nobles, and one of them has been kind enough to communicate his opinion on this important subject.

Bad government.

"The Russian nobility," says a well-informed member of that body, "has had the double misfortune of remaining long under a despotic yoke, and of possessing at the same time an arbitrary power. The privileges of the nobles were not defined before the time of Alexander, and their legal existence commenced at the same recent period. Little attention is at present paid to the enactments of government in the central provinces, and the neglect arises from the nullity or venality of tribunals, from the fact that a thousand acts of oppression may be committed, which are never heard of in the capital, and from a criminal indulgence to those who transgress the laws by which the protection of the people might be otherwise ensured. These defects in the body politic are the causes of many vices in the individual members. Many noble families live the greater part of the year on their estates, or in the neighbourhood of their serfs; their children receive rarely a regular education, the universities are ill attended, and too far removed from many parts of the empire. The great majority of the young nobles enter into the military career, and are satisfied with the superficial attainments which fit them for their profession. The nobles of other countries are not nume-

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rous, and they participate in the advantages of civilization; the rule is reversed in Russia, there is a whole people of nobles without the means of improvement. Their moral or intellectual inferiority is therefore the inevitable result of imperfect institutions.

Progress of Knowledge.

"Catharine permitted the introduction of foreign books, and that act tended more than any other to diffuse a taste for letters among her people. But Paul had hardly ascended the throne, before the Russian empire was intellectually isolated from the rest of the world. Priests and censors were stationed on all the frontiers, and they adhered to the strict terms of their commission. The booksellers gave up their agents in other countries, and if any ventured to import a new work, it was at the risk of capital punishment, or of enjoying always the *free air of Siberia*. It happened much about the same time that every letter, of which the police had the least suspicion, was opened at the post-office. Few strangers were suffered to remain in the empire, and the young Russians, who studied in Germany, were obliged to return within a given time, under pain of confiscation and perpetual exile. All the preposterous ordinances of a foolish tyrant were early abolished by Alexander. The young prince was anxious to enlighten his people, an improved system of public instruction was adopted, and the sanguine Russians predicted a new era in the history of their country. But the government was suddenly alarmed by suspicions, imaginary dangers and strange insinuations. The sage advisers of the czar suspended the new enactments, lest the revolutions which agitated the rest of Europe, might extend to Russia. As if it were not true that whatever tends to increase the knowledge, and improve the condition of the people, tends also to promote the safety and security of the state.

Court intrigues.

The love of intrigue, and the factious spirit of the courtiers, the cause of frequent revolutions, which retarded the progress of improvement, were repressed during a long and prosperous reign. Few nobles were involved in these crimes, the immense mass of the Russian nobility

remained far from the pleasures and cares of a court, and we believe, if sufficient allowance be made for the disadvantages against which they had to struggle, that an impartial judge might be more apt to admire them for their bravery, loyalty and honour, than to condemn them for failings to which all men in the same situation are equally liable. The indolence of the officers in the different garrisons is the source of many vices, and perhaps the greatest evil to which the empire is exposed." BOOK CX.

These observations are well calculated to correct the erroneous statements of travellers, and to destroy many of the prejudices which have been formed against the Russian nobility. Whatever has been said against their indolent habits, their passion for gambling, their frivolous conversation, their custom of sleeping in the daytime, is inapplicable to those who can obtain any useful occupation; even the nobles that never leave their government, are gradually improving. Actual improvement.

The slave is not so often menaced with excruciating and unlawful punishment, and his lord is no longer degraded below the level of humanity by debauchery and drunkenness. It cannot indeed be denied that the toilet and the dance have greater charms to a sensual and lively race like the Slavonic, than to a contemplative people like the Germans, but the social amusements of the Russian are refined by the influence of the fair sex. Travellers generally qualify the unlimited hospitality of the same people by the adjective *barbarous*; still those who know the climate and the localities must be convinced that their hospitality is not a proof of vain and prodigal magnificence, but of social and benevolent customs.

The Slavonians of Novgorod, as well as those of Kiow, were soon scattered over a very large territory, and the people had not sufficient time to form many dialects; at least we know of no others than these which bear the name of the two chief towns, and the *Weliki* and *Malo* Russian that were introduced at a later period. These dialects differ only from each other in the pronunciation and in some grammatical Language and dialects.

BOOK CX. constructions. The dialect of Moscow is formed from that of Novgorod, but it is more harmonious, it is the language of Russian authors, among whom might be cited eloquent writers, moralists and poets, but nothing great has hitherto been achieved in philosophy or science.

These two branches of the Russian nation resembled each other in their ancient superstitions. Kiow was the real Olympus of the Slavonic mythology; we observe in that worship, as in the superstition of the Finns and Lettons, a general personification of natural agents, but not, as in the more profound system of Scandinavian Odinism, an assumption of a contest between a good and evil principle. Simple, rude and wholly material, the Slavonic mythology is made up of many divinities and genii. *Perun*, the god of lightning and thunder, the dispenser of the harvests, the regulator of the seasons, and the supreme master of the gods, is evidently the *Perkun* of the Lithuanians, and the *Perendi* of the Albanians or ancient Illyrians. Thus there must have been some resemblance in the ancient superstition of nations now far removed and widely different from each other. But Perun had little in common with the other divinities. *Morskoi-Tsar*, or the king of the sea, is imperfectly known, we are even ignorant of his real name.

Vital Fire. *Znitsch*, the living fire, was adored at Novgorod, and it is remarkable that his name, like that of Schiwa, may signify the destroyer.* Many of the deities are allegorical beings of no very mysterious nature. *Korscha* or the Bacchus of the Slavonians, was crowned with a garland of hops. *Lada* or beauty, was the mother of *Lel* or *Lelo*, desire, and also of *Polelia* or love, from whom is sprung Did or Dziat, the genius that protects children. It is ridiculous to seek the proofs of a profound philosopy in these simple fables. Some doubts exist concerning *Led*, the god of war, and *Koliada* or *Koleda*, the god of peace; according to a different hypothesis, they were the divinities of summer and winter. *Dazebog* lavished the treasures that are con-

* *Zniszeie* is a Polish verb, which signifies to annihilate.

cealed under the earth, *Kupalo*, the goddess of fruits, was honoured with processions, and *Wolos*, the guardian of flocks, punished those who violated their oath. *Pogoda*, the god of fine weather and the spring, was crowned with blue flowers, and soared on azure wings above the rising plants. *Simarla*, the young goddess with the girdle of roses, whose breath is fragrant as the lily, was ever faithful to her lover Pogoda. The icy garments, the hoar-frost mantle, and the snow crown of *Zemergla*, explain her attributes. *Tchernoibog* or the black god is the reputed author of death and every evil; sacrifices were offered to conciliate his favour, and his pity was occasionally excited by lugubrious songs. Many inferior genii roamed on the earth, the *Rusalki* or green-haired nymphs haunted the rivers, the *Leschie* resembled satyrs, they could diminish or add to their stature. The serpents adored in Lithuania were worshipped by the Russians; they were the *Demovie-Duschi* or familiar demons of the houses. We have omitted to mention *Kikimora* or the goddess of dreams, the *Koltki* or the spirits of the night, and *Polkan*, who was represented as a centaur, and styled by some authors, the Slavonic Vulcan.[t]

Divinities of the spring.

The above enumeration of the Slavonian divinities accords with the statement of Procopius, an author that lived in the sixth century. "The Slavi and Antes," says that writer, "adored a single god, who commands the thunder, and governs the universe; to this being are sacrificed bulls and different victims. They have no doctrine concerning destiny, but the sick and dying vow offerings in the faith of purchasing health. The rivers are sacred and inhabited by nymphs and spirits, that often foretell future events."[u]

Testimony of Procopius.

We observe, in the above passage, the principal traits of the Slavonic mythology, as it is represented by national authors. It is vain to look for the traces of a *dual-*

Supposed dualism.

[t] *Hlinka*, Drewniaia relihia, &c. Mitau, 1814. Kaisarow, Slavianek Mithologia. Moscow, 1807.

[u] Procopius de Bello Gothico.

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[illegible] Russia from the east, or to follow *ism* transported into [illegible] writers, who can discover an the subtleties of Germ[illegible] powers of light and darkness, be- opposition between the [illegible] Tschernoibog, the black tween *Bielbog* the white god, and [illegible] divinity that has been already men[illegible]. The image of Bielbog covered with blood and flies, ind[illegible] subordinate rank in the ancient and truly national system of the Slavonians on the Dnieper. But that system was not founded, like the Edda of the Scandinavians, on the belief of two adverse principles; no mention is made of the fabulous contests between the good and wicked gods, no drama is descriptive of the war which ended in the defeat of the former. These notions were too profound and too gloomy for the Slavonic race. Such a doctrine, if it was ever acknowledged in their mythology, must have been introduced by strangers, particularly the Goths, who were long the chiefs and tyrants of the Slavonians.

Temples and Holy Places.

The eastern Slavonians or Russians had few temples, and their religious ceremonies were not accompanied with much pomp before the time of Wladimir, the last heathen sovereign. That prince opposed Christianity, collected the idols, and adorned the temples, which he demolished after his conversion. But the Slavonians had their holy places in thick forests, where the priests and the augurs were concealed from the profane multitude. The Dnieper and the Bog were the sacred rivers of the Kiovians, and the Wolchowa of the Novgordians.

BOOK CXI.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. European Russia. Seventh Section. Lithuanian Provinces.

Origin of the Lithuanians.

It remains for us to describe the former Lithuanian provinces, and to complete our account of the Russian empire. These provinces form a separate section; their inhabitants and the ancient Pruczi made up a branch of the Wendes, and their religion and dialect were so different from the other tribes of the same people, that they were long considered a distinct race. The learned Gatterer supposed them the descendants of the ancient Sarmatians, an opinion which we adopted and developed in a work on the subject;[a] but we have since ascertained, from a more accurate knowledge of the Lithuanian language, that the hypothesis must be abandoned, or at all events greatly modified.

Chronicles.

The Lithuanian and Russian traditions are apparently contradictory, or at least, they are of a comparatively recent date, and throw no light on the origin of the people. Kwialowicz, the historian of the Lithuanians, says that an Italian colony landed on the coasts about the year 900. The country was partly civilized by these foreigners, who introduced the great number of Latin words, that are still used in the Lithuanian language. The names of the illustrious exiles are recorded, they were *Palæmon Libo*, *Julian Dorsprungo*,[b] Prosperus and Cæsar *Colonna*, Hector and Ursinus *Rosa*. Several kings were sprung from

[a] Tableau de la Pologne, 1807.

[b] Dorsprungo is evidently a Gothic or a German name.

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them, and they ruled over Samogitia and Lithuania Proper. *Ziwibund*, one of these monarchs devastated Russia in 1089, another prince of the same name defeated the Poles a century afterwards, and *Ringold*, who died in 1240, was king of Lithuania, Mazovia, Polesia, Czernigovia, Samogitia, Courland and other Russian provinces.

Russian chronicles.

The possessions of the Lithuanians, according to the Russian chronicles, were confined in ancient times to Courland, Samogitia and a narrow territory on the east of the last country. Nestor, the most ancient historian of Russia, mentions *Littwa* in his list of the provinces, and *Polock* or *Polotsk* in the number of the towns which prince Oleg freed in 907, from the tribute that had been paid to the "Greek emperors." *Polock* was in the last years of the tenth century, the residence of Rogvold, whose daughter Rogneda was sought in marriage by Wladimir the Great. The princess having refused her consent, Wladimir made war on her father, destroyed the capital, put the king and his two sons to death, and then obtained the hand of the captive Rogneda. The same monarch repudiated his wife, but not until she had born him several children. Polosk was by that time rebuilt, and Rogneda and her eldest son, Isaslaw were permitted to reside in it. The town and the principality, which comprehended the whole of Lithuania, and the greater part of Livonia, were ceded to the princess by Wladimir. Isaslaw and his descendants governed the country, until the dynasty became extinct in the thirteenth century. The great dutchy of Lithuania was then formed, and Ringold was the first who took the new title in 1239. The genealogical annals of Russia *(Rodoslownie)* make Ringold the descendant of the ancient sovereigns of Polotsk, but that assertion is not confirmed by any evidence. The great dukes of Lithuania became in time masters of Polotsk and all the Russian towns in the ancient principality.

Formation of the Grand Dutchy.

Whether these obscure traditions be admitted or rejected, it is certain that the two chronicles accord from the time that Ringold extended the possessions of the Lithuanians.

Vittenes, a native of Samogitia, obtained, after more than one revolution, about the end of the thirteenth century, the title of great duke, and left his states to his son *Gedemin*, who built Wilna and made it his residence. The same sovereign defeated Stanislas near Kiow, took his capital, and became, says Nestor, great prince of Russia. *Jahellon*, his grandson, who is better known by the name of *Jagellon*, offered his hand to queen Hedvige, the only daughter of Lewis, king of Poland. The prince promised at the same time to embrace Christianity, to convert all his people, to unite Lithuania to Poland, and to reconquer the provinces wrested from the crown. These generous offers were very pleasing to the Poles, who sent a solemn embassy to the great duke. Jagellon took the name of Uladislas, after his baptism at Cracow in 1386; he then married Hedvige, and was crowned king of Poland. The prince returned the following year to Lithuania, converted several thousands of his subjects, founded the bishopric of Wilna, and regulated ecclesiastical discipline. Uladislas conferred on his cousin Vitold or Alexander, the title of great duke of Lithuania, in 1392, but its junction with Poland was not thus retarded, for the king himself retained the sovereignty of the dutchy. The union between the two states was confirmed in 1401, by an act of the diet assembled at Wilna. Vitold took Samogitia from the Teutonic order in 1408. A second diet was held in the small town of Horodlo in 1413, and the Lithuanians were declared liable to the same taxes, and subject to the same laws as the Poles. The arms of the two nations were united, and the great dukes of Lithuania were appointed by the kings of Poland. It was also enacted that the Poles and Lithuanians should elect a king in the event of the sovereign dying without children or lawful heirs. The alliance concluded in 1413, was renewed in 1499, and, to render the leading article more explicit, it was added that the Lithuanians could not elect their dukes without the concurrence of the Poles, nor the Poles their king without the consent of the Lithuanians.

Jagellon.

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The knights of the sword ceded to the king of Poland, as great duke of Lithuania, that part of Livonia which still belonged to them in 1561. The new duke of Courland then became tributary to the Polish crown. The Poles and Lithuanians held a diet at Lublin in 1559, and it was enacted that the respective countries formed one state or an elective monarchy, and that the right of election was vested in the two nations. The sovereign obtained the double title of king of Poland, and great duke of Lithuania. It was also decreed that the two people should have the same senate, and that deputies should be elected by both nations; the alliances and wars of the two states were declared to be common. The inhabitants of the kingdom and the dutchy paid their proportion in maintaining the auxiliary troops; in short, the government of the two countries was in every respect the same. It was made imperative by the laws of 1673, 1677 and 1685, that every third diet, with the exception of the elective coronation and convocation diets, should be held at Grodno in Lithuania.

Act of 1559.

It was thus, by many repeated attempts, that the princes of the *Jagellonic* dynasty accomplished an union between two nations equally warlike and equally independent. But Lithuania, though joined to Poland, retained always its distinct character. The nobles only adopted the manners of the Poles, and spoke their dialect. The great majority of the inhabitants never changed their customs, and the Samogitian peasants continued in the enjoyment of their personal freedom. Besides, the people in Lithuanian Russia, or the inhabitants of Witepsk, Mohilew, Mcislaw, Minsk, Novogrodek and Brzesk, spoke the Rousniac, and adhered to the tenets of the Greek church. Thus, while Poland was more than once dismembered, the people in these provinces were always disposed to separate from a nation with which they had never been identified. It is also well known that they refused to join the insurrection of 1812, or to declare themselves in favour of the French.

Result.

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The official divisions, with the exception of Witepsk, which has been already considered, are the government of Mohilew, or the south of White Russia; 2d, the government of Minsk, which includes the west of White Russia, the south-east of *Black Russia*, and the greater part of Polesia, 3d, the government of *Grodno*, or the remaining part of Polesia and Black Russia, and the south of Lithuania, or the province of *Troki*, 4th, the district of *Bialystock* or the ancient Podlachia, 5th, the government of Wilna, or the north of Lithuania and Samogitia.

Russian governments.

There is little in the present state of these governments, which is likely to interest the reader. We shall therefore chiefly confine our attention to the ancient provinces and the national character of the people. *Samogitia* is called *Szamait* by the natives. The whole territory is not large, but it is well wooded; the land consists of a rich clay, and yields immense harvests of flax and lint. These plants arrive at greater perfection than in any other part of Russia.[c] The bees swarm in the forests, and the honey and wax are not inferior to any in Europe. The elk and the urus wandered formerly among the flocks, and there are still too many bears, wolves and other wild animals. The large snakes that frequent the woods were worshipped by the ancient Samogitians, a superstition which is not yet wholly abolished.[d]

Samogitia. Physical description.

The horses are small, and the oxen are not large, but both are of a hardy race, and there are a great number in the country. The husbandmen cannot be induced to give up their light wooden ploughs; the iron plough, which was once tried, is supposed to be an instrument of evil omen. If the wheat crops sometimes fail, it must be imputed to the imperfect system of husbandry. The seed is generally put into the ground about three weeks before Pentecost, and such is the heat of summer that it is commonly ripe in less than two months. The grain is cut in

[c] *Starovolski*, Polonia, p. 66. *Rzaczinski*, &c.
[d] Lasicius de diis Samogitarum, p. 55.

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the morning and in the evening, and the reapers repose in the middle of the day.

Towns and houses.

The towns in Samogitia are too insignificant to require a minute description. *Miedniki*, *Rosienie* and a few others are peopled by a thousand inhabitants. *Kieydani* is the only one which contains 5000 souls. The dwellings are long and narrow cottages, built with the trunks of trees, and covered with moss, bark or straw. The roof tapers to a narrow aperture, from which the smoke escapes. The fire is placed in the middle of the dwelling; the men and women remain in one extremity, and the other is occupied by oxen, horses, pigs, goats and sheep. These animals, it may be readily believed, do not shun the approach of man; indeed so great is the familiarity which a common residence inspires, that they frequently make free with the food of the two-legged inhabitants. The same simplicity or rudeness is observable in the dress and furniture of the people. Their shoes are made of the bark of trees, and their wooden carts are joined together without any iron; it is not customary to grease the wheels, and a creeking noise announces at a distance the coming of their vehicles.

Samogitians.

The country appears to be peopled by two distinct classes of inhabitants; the first are a tall race of men, probably descended from the Goths and Wendes, who settled in the province at a very remote epoch; the others are short but stoutly made, robust and hardy like the Lettonians. The Samogitian women marry commonly between twenty-four and thirty, while those in White Russia, according to the statement of a very intelligent traveller, are often marriageable at the age of ten. The higher orders in Lithuania and Samogitia, says the same writer, are as much distinguished by their chastity, as the Russians are notorious for the want of that virtue.[e] It is certain that small bells were at one time attached to the dress of the Samogitian girls, a precaution which was intended to pre-

[e] Herberstein. See Pistorius, t. I. p. 151.

vent them from leaving any place without apprizing their parents or their sage and elderly relatives. The ancient marriage ceremonies were not confined to the province, but used by the Courlanders, Lithuanians and Prussians, and some of their customs were not unlike those of the Greeks and Romans. Two friends of the bridegroom carried away the seemingly reluctant bride from her father's house. She was led on the wedding day three times round the fire place of her future husband; it was then customary to wash her feet, and with the same water that had been used for that purpose, the bridal bed, the furniture and all the guests were sprinkled. Honey was put to her lips, a significant ceremony, by which she was admonished to abstain from domestic strife. Lastly, her eyes were covered with the nuptial veil, the attendants conducted her to all the doors in the house, she knocked at each of them with her right foot, and rye, oats, barley, peas, beans and poppies were scattered in every apartment. The priest who diffused these emblems of abundance, told the bride to continue stedfast in her religion, and assiduous in the discharge of her domestic duties; these virtues, though no apparent connexion subsists between them, were supposed equally effectual in repelling the evils of poverty. When the ceremonies were ended, the bride sat down to a feast, and joined afterwards in the dance, her partners were permitted to cut off adroitly one or two locks of her hair, and young girls conducted her to the marriage bed.

Manners.

The Samogitians contended long against the Teutonic knights, and gained personal freedom by their valiant resistance. They adopted Christianity with great reluctance, and that religion was mixed even in the sixteenth century with their ancient superstitions. *Auxteia-visa-gist*, the name of their supreme god, is derived from the Icelandic or Gothic. An Icelander of the present day would say *Haugsta-visa-geist*, to indicate a supreme and all-wise being. *Perkounos* was the god of thunder, a divinity not widely different from the *Peroun* of the Slavonians. *Ze-*

Ancient worship.

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mienik, the tutelar deity of the country, was adored at the end of harvest, and a sacred fire was kindled on the summit of a hill in honour of *Pargni*, the god of the seasons. Many plants, trees and fountains were considered holy, and the *Givoite* or divine serpents were worshipped by all the inhabitants. One god presided over bees, another over geese, many more over different animals, and the care of pigs was committed to *Kremata*. Girls sacrificed to *Waisgantho*, the god of lint and flax; the person who performed the office of priestess, had to stand on one foot, and if she supported herself for an instant on the other, it was thought a bad omen of the future crop. A festival was instituted in honour of the dead. The simple and credulous Samogitians built a cottage in the thick recess of a forest, a table was placed in it, which was every year covered with viands, and surrounded with chairs. The shades were solemnly invited to leave their graves, and to partake of the dishes that were prepared for them.[f]

Honours rendered to the dead.

Other honours were paid to the deceased, as soon as a man expired, the relatives dressed the corpse in costly apparel, put it on a chair, drank its health in beer, and sung couplets, of which the following is a literal translation:

"Alas! why did you die? Had you not enough to eat and drink? Alas! why did you die? Had you not a good wife? Alas! why did you die? Had you not oxen, horses," &c. &c.

The attendants at the funeral rode on horseback, and brandished drawn swords in the air; the evil spirits were thus prevented from approaching the body. All the dead were deposited on a hill, and it was usual to lay beside them some pieces of money, together with a small quantity of bread, and beer; if the person was a woman, a bunch of thread and a few needles were placed within her reach. The widow repaired to the tomb of her husband, and wept over it thirty consecutive days at sunrise and

[f] Lasicius, p. 50.

sunset. The other relatives of the deceased met at dinner on the third, sixth, ninth and fortieth days after the funeral. The deceased and other spirits were supposed to be present at these silent and mournful parties, and when the last of them was over, a priest rose up, swept the house with much gravity, and exclaimed, "O souls, you have eat, you have drunk; now fly, now fly."

Lithuania. Physical details.

Lithuania Proper is a very low country; the greater part of it is covered with sand, and intersected with fens and marshes. Ferruginous ochre is found in all the peat mosses, and it yields forty parts of good iron out of every hundred. Copper pyrites and petrifactions, many of which resemble the roots of trees, are very common. Large and small blocks of granite, and pudding stones or conglomerated masses of different rocks mixed with white, red and different coloured quartz, are scattered over the sandy districts. The same country abounds in the remains of marine animals, madrepores and the rare coral of Gothland. Large pieces of yellow amber may be mentioned among its productions. These facts are sufficient to excite the curiosity of naturalists, and it is to be regretted that we are not already in possession of a physical and detailed map of the whole Sarmatian plain.

Climate.

The humid climate of Lithuania is subject to oppressive heat and to extreme cold, which seldom continues any length of time. But two or three days of a Lithuanian winter proved fatal to the remains of the French army, that escaped the Russian sword, and fled from the ashes of Moscow.

Animals, Productions.

The country is still covered with immense forests, where bears, wolves, wild boars and beavers are found in thousands. The urus appears not only to have diminished in number, but to have degenerated in size and strength. The ordinary trees are the resinous pine, the common oak and the mountain ash. A great quantity of kali and potashes is every year exported from the province. Much honey is obtained, and the natives make it into *lipicz* or white hydromel, and *malinietz* or hydromel mixed with raspberries. The pastures are excellent, the cattle are bet-

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ter than those in Russia, and the wool is of a finer quality. Although large districts are well adapted for the culture of corn, buck wheat appears to be the most common crop.

Such are the natural riches of the country, but the industry of the inhabitants does not correspond with the liberality of nature. The best lands are uncultivated, the finest hay is suffered to decay on the meadows, and from the negligence of the rural authorities, whole forests are sometimes destroyed by fire. The country is infested with Jews, hence the cause that the interest of money is seldom less than ten per cent., although every article of consumption may be obtained at a very moderate price. The same people monopolize all the commerce, the corn is bought by them before it is in ear; though assiduous and persevering, they are too numerous to amass wealth. The population in the government of Wilna amounts to 1,700,000 inhabitants, and no fewer than 100,000 are Israelites, all of whom are only amenable to their own *kahals* or tribunals.

The Niemen.

The *Niemen* or the largest river in the country is navigable, and its course is tranquil, but it discharges itself into the Curisch-Haff, a Prussian bay; thus commerce is shackled, and the articles exported from the province are subject to oppressive duties. The Wilia or the second river in the country falls into the Niemen.

Lithuanians.

There are still several wealthy families in the ancient Polish nobility, among others, the Radziwils, the Sapiehas and the Orgingski, but their splendid palaces are surrounded by wretched cottages. The Lithuanian peasantry differ little in their habits and manner of life from the Samogitians, and are probably the descendants of the same people; but the former have mingled more with the Slavonians proper. "The Lithuanians," says a physician, who visited the country, "resemble the Poles and Russians, although they are even less advanced in civilization than the inhabitants of these nations. Struggling against poverty, oppressed by slavery, their appearance indicates their degraded condition. The country is humid and marshy, but intermittent fevers are of rare occurrence, plica is not so

common as in the rest of Poland, and it appears from a number of observations, that nine persons out of ten among the lower orders are never inflicted with that loathsome disease. The proportion among the higher classes is as one to ninety or a hundred. Erysipelas, itch and scrofula are common diseases, vaccination has not yet been introduced."[g]

The Lithuanian peasants wear a woollen mantle, and many of them merely a sheep skin above a coarse shirt. Their shoes are made of the bark of trees, their carts of mountain ash, and the different pieces are joined together without any iron. The most flexible branches are plaited, and used instead of bridles and harness.[h]

Lithuanian language.

The poor and oppressed people still speak that ancient dialect, which, from its connexion with history, has given rise to much discussion.

The Lithuanian language is spoken in Wilna, Troki and Grodno in Samogitia, and in Eastern Prussia from Memel to Gumbinnen and Insterburg. We have given our opinion of it in a separate work,[i] but, from paying too much attention to the difference rather than the resemblance between it and the Slavonic and the Wend, we supposed it distinct from the one and the other. We committed also the same error as the learned Gerttera, who applied the name of *Sarmatian* to the language and the people that spoke it. Thunmann discovered many Slavonic, Finnic and Gothic words in the Lithuanian dialect; but that circumstance is not sufficient to account for the formation of a language, which in the indication of physical objects, is regular and complete, in the expression of sentiments, ingenious, and in its relation to a particular mythology, wholly original. We believe that it was the ancient language of the Venedæ or Wends, the *Galindi*, *Sudavi* and other tribes that were called Pruczi at a later period. It might perhaps have been a very ancient form of the Slavonic, which was afterwards connect-

g Lafontaine, Dissertations chirurgico-médicales relatives à la Pologne.
h Rzaczyski, p. 205. i Tableau de la Pologne, 1807. Chap. xv.

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ed with the Gothic. We may call it the Proto-Wend to distinguish it from the Wend, that was introduced in the tenth century by Slavonic tribes on the banks of the Oder and the Elbe. It retains probably the most ancient and melodious form of the Slavonic primitives, freed from the frequent consonants or harsh sounds in the Polish, and terminating in sonorous or liquid letters, like the Greek and the Latin. But, independently of these roots, there are many that may be considered Gothic or Scandinavian, at all events the resemblance between them is obvious, still the analogy may be attributed to the common origin of all the Indo-Germanic tongues.

It might be instructive, according to the one or the other hypothesis, to trace its connexion with different languages, particularly the Icelandic and the Meso-Gothic of Ulphilas.* The grammatical structure is not less re-

* The relation between the Slavonic and the Lithuanian, which is derived from the Proto-Wend, may be illustrated by some examples. *Brat*, a brother, (Polish) *brolis* (Lithuan.) *Brzezina*, a birch wood, *berzinas*, *Zivot*, life, *givenimas*. *Kmiec*, a slave, *kiemionis*. *Krol*, a king, *karalus*. *Wladza*, power, waldia. *Skladny*, elegant, *suklotinis*. *Skromny*, modest, romus. Przeplynac, I swim across, perplaukiu. It is a laborious and difficult task to trace the resemblance between the Slavonic and Proto-Wend roots; but it is the means of obtaining new proofs of the connexion that subsists between many ancient languages. Thus *zemlia* and *ziemie* (land) have little analogy with *dschiami* in Sanscrit, but they are almost identical with *ziame* in Lithuanian. The Sanscrit word, *pria*, beloved, resembles the Lithuanian *priatel*, and is widely different from the *frijan* of Ulphilas. *Tuva* in Sanscrit, and *tawas* in Lithuanian are the same, *Apu*, water in Sanscrit, which is common to the Zend, Persian and *Kurd*, is expressed by *oupe* in Lithuanian. *Akschi*, the eye, is *aks* in Lithuanian. The relation of the same language to the Mesogothic and Icelandic-Scandinavian may be illustrated by the following examples. Saule, sun, *saul*, (Ulphilas) *sol* in Scandinavian. *Ougnis*, fire, *ovn*, a chimney or fireside. Baltas, white, Balder, the god of light. *Tarnas*, a slave, terna, a Swedish word for a domestick. *Medis*, a tree in Lithuanian, *meithr* in Icelandic. I shall cite one out of many remarkable hellenisms, *Eymipesciomis*, I go on foot, is the same as Eimi pezos in Greek. Many words have no apparent analogy with those of the same signification in any other language, as *padgous*, heaven, arklis, a horse, &c. &c. Latinisms are common; thus *senas*, old age, *jungas*, a yoke, *giaras*, dear. It follows from these and other examples, that the Lithuanian language forms a very important link in the chain of the Indo-Gothic tongues.

markable than the elementary part of the Lithuanian language. It possesses the same articles and declensions as the Greek, some of the Slavonic conjugations, several peculiarities of the Russian pronoun, and the same facility as the Russian, in the formation of compound words, diminutives and *verba prægnantia*. Lastly, it unites the two qualities of harmony and flexibility, the one renders it well adapted for poetry, the other for different kinds of versification. BOOK CXI.

Towns.

Wilna, the capital of Lithuania, is built on the confluence of the Wilia and Wilienka. The town, if the two suburbs of *Antokolla* and *Roudaischa* be included, covers a great extent of ground. The population exceeds 40,000 inhabitants, of whom five thousand are Jews. A mosque, a synagogue, one Lutheran, three Russian, one Calvinistic and thirty-two Catholic churches are the different places of worship, and consequently three holy-days are observed every week. All the sects live in peace with each other, indeed they are more intent about trading than spiritual concerns. We may also mention a theological seminary for the education of Greek priests, a school of navigation, which, in our opinion, is ill placed, an astronomical observatory, and lastly, an university, that may one day hold a high rank among the northern schools. It was founded by the bishop Valerian Protasowitz, and its privileges were confirmed by Stephen Bathori and pope Gregory XIII. It fell afterwards into decay, but it was rebuilt in 1781 by the patriotic Stanislaus Poniatowsky; since that time it has been called the *Schola princeps* of the great dutchy of Lithuania. The Emperor Alexander increased its funds, established several new professorships, and sent a great addition to the library. *Kowno*, a town of four thousand inhabitants, is situated at the junction of the Wilia and the Niemen; and Troki, which contains 3500, is built near a marsh that never freezes.[1] *Grodno* on the Niemen was peopled in 1790 by more than four thousand

[1] Rzaczinski and Starovolski, Polonia, p. 35.

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individuals, and nearly a fourth of them were Jews; but its palaces are now desert, its silk, velvet and cloth manufactories are ruined. The last Polish diet was held at Grodno, and Russian soldiers compelled the deputies to put their names to the treaty, by which the division of their country was sanctioned.[m]

Monastery.

Freidensberg or the Mount of Peace is surrounded by a forest on the banks of the Wilia, at the distance of a mile and a half from Kowno. A convent on its summit is now the residence of twenty-four hermits, that belong to the order of Camaldolites. The edifice was erected in 1674 by Christopher Pacs, chancellor of Lithuania, who expended more than 800,000 crowns on the work. The vault and cupolas are painted in fresco, and the walls are adorned with many original paintings of the best masters. The Pacs[n] are descended from the Florentine Pazzi, who, having in vain contended against the Medici, left Tuscany, and settled in Poland, where they attained the highest dignities, and even attempted to dispute the sovereignty with the great Sobieski. The Italian style may be easily recognised in all the public buildings which were raised by these illustrious strangers.[o]

Tartars.

The part of Lithuania that is now added to eastern Prussia, is inhabited by Tartars, who have their mosque at *Wiskupie*. The republick of Poland made over to them two *starostics*, each of which yielded a revenue of 10,000 florins. It was at the same time declared unlawful to restrain them in the free exercise of their religion.[p]

Lithuanian Russia.

Lithuanian Russia included part of the countries which the great dukes conquered from the Russians in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The palatinates of *Polock*, *Witepsk*, *Mcislaw* and *Minsk*, made up *White Rus-*

[m] The treaty of 1793, by which the division of Poland is said to have been sanctioned.

[n] The name is pronounced as if it were written Patz.

[o] Tableau de la Pologne.

[p] Cellarius, p. 280, Laws of the Diet of 1767.

sia, and the palatinate of *Novogrodek* was denominated *Black Russia*. The origin of these names is uncertain, some authors assure us that the inhabitants of one province were clothed in white, while those of another confined themselves exclusively to dark attire. If their derivation be admitted, it follows that Black Russia must have comprehended the whole of Little and Red Russia, Volhynia and the Ukraine. It is well known, however, that the name was never applied to so great an extent of territory. Another hypothesis has been advanced, which we consider more probable, the words *white* and *black*, it is said, are used, as in the Tartar, Turkish and other languages, to denote *free* and *vassal*. Black Russia, therefore, was first conquered by the Lithuanians, and the White Russians retained their name after they were subdued. The other explanations which have been proposed, are connected with physical objects, as snow, forests and lakes.

Physical description.

The forests and marshes in these vast provinces are more extensive than any in Lithuania. Sigismond the First was obliged, during his expedition against Smolensko, to construct 340 bridges and dikes within the distance of twenty-four leagues. [q] The state of the country has not been much improved since his time. Modern travellers avoid the road through Polock, and the following account is given of the one from Smolensko to Minsk by a Frenchman, who travelled on it a few years ago. "The road," says that writer, "is often impassable, the villages are mean, and the peasants are poor. Most of the houses are inhabited by Jews, who are perhaps the most filthy people of any in Europe. Men, women, children, cattle and poultry are all lodged under the same roof. We have often been constrained to share the only apartment in the dwelling with that numerous and select society. Spirits may be had every where, wine is not uncommon, and not very dear, but provisions can only be obtained in the towns,

[q] Rzackinski, Hist. Nat. p. 159.

BOOK CXI. which are thinly scattered, indeed most of them might pass in other countries for wretched villages." [r]

The cultivated land in White Russia produces secale, barley, oats, wheat, turnips and leguminous plants. Naval timber abounds in the forests, and the animals that frequent them, are bears, elks and wolves. The stagnant and running waters teem with fish, and the bees, notwithstanding the severity of the climate, yield plenty of wax and honey.

Agriculture. Some peculiarities in the system of agriculture may be briefly stated. Wheat is generally sown in ashes. The peasants begin to cut the brushwood about the festival of St. Peter and St. Paul, the branches are strewed on the ground, and sometimes covered with straw. The soil remains nearly a year in the same state, and the heap is burnt in the following spring, commonly on the first warm and dry day after Easter. Care is taken that the fire does not penetrate into the earth, and the wheat is put into the ground after the surface is grazed with the light plough. A good soil is chosen for the purpose, and it is rendered extremely fertile by this sort of compost. [s] If barley be the intended crop, all the branches in a thick copse are cut, but the trunks are not wholly destroyed. The wood which is thus obtained, is afterwards burnt in the same manner. We are thus enabled to account for the great number of half-consumed pollards, that excited the surprise of an English traveller. [t] Late rye is the next crop after the wheat or barley. The ground is twice laboured, and, according to an old adage, the work must be commenced after the festival of the Assumption, (the fifteenth of August) and finished before the birthday of the Virgin, the eighth of September. If this rule be not strictly observed, the seed, it is supposed, is sown in vain. It is said, however, that some husbandmen more bold than the rest, have introduced a different practice. Two parts of barley and

[r] Fortia de Piles, t. V. [s] Alex. Guagnini, Elzevir's Polonia.
[t] Coxe's Travels in Poland, vol. I. p. 103.

one of winter secale are sown during the spring in the same field. The barley is reaped in autumn, and the secale, which grows under its shade, is next year loaded with spikes, and appears like a luxuriant plantation, in which a man on horseback may be effectually concealed. [u]

Summer secale is sown after Easter, barley and oats at Pentecost, peas before St. Peter's day, and turnips about the festival of St. John. The seed time is earlier in Black than in White Russia.

Condition of the people.

The people are ignorant and poor. A stranger saw many White Russian peasants arrive at Riga about six years ago. Their clothing was sheep skins, and although they conducted boats laden with corn, they suffered much from famine. The poor slaves slept on the ground or in hovels constructed with the remains of old planks, having sold their cargo and their boats, they returned in the same state that they came, and restored to their lords or their lords' stewards the whole price of the goods, which is always paid in ready money. [x]

Towns in White Russia.

The towns in the government are not numerous. *Mohilew*, the metropolis of a Russian government, is the only large one, it contains 16,000 inhabitants; its situation on the Dnieper is favourable to trade, and it shares with Vitepsk the commerce of White Russia. The one carries on a trade with Riga, the other with Cherson and Odessa. The communications have been rendered easy by the canal of the Beresina, which unites the river of the same name (a feeder of the Dnieper) with the Duna, and consequently the Baltic with the Black Sea. *Mstislawl*, a town of five thousand souls, and *Dubrowna*, which contains 8000, are situated in the same government.

Moldavian colony.

A colony of Moldavians and Wallachians, who migrated to these regions for some cause that is now unknown, are settled at Uschatky near the town of Tcherikow, [y] and also

[u] Guagnini, Elzevir's Polonia, p. 286.

[x] *Züge zu einem gemælde.* Second part, p. 118.

[y] Campenhausen's Travels in Russia.

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in the neighbourhood of Mstislawl and Propoisk. They speak a Wallachian dialect mixed with Slavonic and Lithuanian words.

Towns in Black Russia.

The town of Minsk, although the capital of a government, contains only 3000 inhabitants. We may mention the small village of *Studianka*, which is famous from the passage of the Beresina, where a few French soldiers made for themselves a road through the Russian army.

Slonim, one of the largest towns in Black Russia, is peopled by five thousand individuals. It is situated in Grodno, and was at one time the metropolis of that government. *Sluck* was once the capital of a dutchy about a hundred and twenty-five miles in length; the dukes, though nominally tributary, were in reality independent, but their possessions were ceded to the family of Radziwill. The celebrated Nicholas Christopher Radziwill, to whom we are indebted for a book of travels, built a large castle, with fortifications, that have been since destroyed by the Swedes and Russians.

Polesia.

The ancient province of Polesia extends on the south of Black Russia, and the soil is in a great measure concealed under the shade of thick forests, or covered by the water of lakes, rivers and marshes. The country is almost inaccessible the greater part of the year. The fens with which it is inundated, resemble a sea, and it received probably on that account the name of Polesia. Fish, honey, timber and iron are among the most common productions of the province. If a canal of no great length were cut from the *Muchawiec*,[1] a feeder of the Bug, to the *Pina* that falls into the Pripetz; boats might sail from the Vistula to the Dnieper, and a new communication, a most important outlet for the commerce of the country, might be formed between the Baltic and the Black Sea. But Count Oginski united formerly the two seas by a canal that joined the *Szczara* (Chtchara) to the Pripetz. The first of these rivers flows into the Niemen, and the second into the Dnieper. The large marshes

Oginski canal

[1] Mughavietz.

in the district of Pinsk were partly drained by the canal, which commenced at eight Polish miles from Slonim on the Szczara, crossed the lake *Sviznica*, and terminated at the *Iasiolda*, that enters the Pripetz at seven miles from the town of Pinsk.[a] Thus the distance was not greater than eight miles, and the country on both sides belonged to the count. The author of that great undertaking had the satisfaction of seeing in 1787, a boat laden with a hundred tons of salt, sailing between Cherson and Koenigsberg.[b] The canal is now obstructed with sand, and though no longer used for commercial purposes, it still serves to drain the marshes.

Towns in Polesia.

Brzesk, which is surnamed *Litewska* or Lithuanian, to distinguish it from a Polish town of the same name, is not so much known from its fortified castle on the Bug, as from its *Jewish academy*, which is frequented by Israelites from every country in Europe. *Pinsk*, the largest town in Polesia, is surrounded by marshes, and its population does not exceed 4000 inhabitants. The Jews have a synagogue, and the trade of the place consists in Russian leather, which is said to be the best of any in Poland. The ancient Jesuits built a college, and founded a dispensary in this desert region. The last institution has survived its founders, while those who were ensnared into popery, are returning in thousands to the Eastern church.

Province of Bialystock.

The province of Bialystock, or the western limit of the vast empire of the czar, corresponds partly with the ancient Podlachia. It was peopled in the middle ages by the *Iatwinges*, a people, that are considered, perhaps incorrectly, a branch of the Jaziges. The town of Bialystock, the most modern of any between Warsaw and Petersburg, contains a population of 6000 souls, it is adorned with a fine castle and several public buildings.

[a] A Polish mile is equal to two English miles and a half.

[b] Sirisa, a Polish author. See *Nord Littéraire*, &c. &c. deuxieme cahier, p. 154.

BOOK CXII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. Russia concluded. Origin, rise and resources of the Russian empire.

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A philosopher contemplates without prejudice the rise and fall of nations. But it is difficult to divest oneself of the political fears and jealousies that agitate the people and the ministers of kings, or to view with indifference the colossal power of Russia. The impatience of cotemporaries is natural, we are too anxious to discover or imagine causes that may tend to accelerate the dissolution of an empire, which threatens the destruction of Europe. Thus, the distant future is often confounded with the chances of the morrow. A revolution takes place in the palace, a civil war follows, and the frail tenure by which Russia holds all her immense provinces is instantly perceived. Let not wise governments be too secure, or overrate the chances of such events. Who knows that the fall of so great an empire may not be followed by calamities more disastrous than those which accompanied its rise, or that the civil convulsions of such a state are not more dangerous than its repose? Russia has probably new dominions to acquire before it reaches the fatal term of human greatness, and when that term arrives, the rest of Europe may share its fate.

How have the czars united under their sceptre one half of Europe, and a third part of Asia? What was the origin of their power, by what means was it acquired?

Origin of the Slavo-Russians.

The rise of Russia, whatever be the common opinion on the subject, was not sudden, modern or of an ephemeral character. It was the work of ages and of nature. The seeds of its greatness were sown in the darkness that envelops the origin of the Slavonic race, in the age that the Slavonians increased on the Carpathian mountains, and the savage Greeks assembled round the lyre of Orpheus. That numerous people bred in the forests of Sarmatia, were almost unknown to the Greeks and Romans, and appeared at last in southern Europe under the command of the Goths, their masters, and under the standards of the Huns, their conquerors. Many migrated into different countries long before they were mentioned in history. Freed at last from the double yoke of the Goths and Huns, the Slavonians or Slovenes were afterwards called by their own name. They formed a mass of homogeneous tribes from the Elbe to the Borysthenes, some of which increased in their native land, and others were subdued by the Germanic race. But the most eastern branch, that of the Antes or Russians, extended towards the east, and was strengthened by the descendants of the ancient *Roxolani*. It invaded the uncultivated forests inhabited by the Finns and other people of Scythian origin, founded Kiow, Novgorod, Susdal, Wladimir and Moscow, and peopled and cultivated all the fertile plains as far as the Don and the Wolga. They did not enter of their own accord on the career of conquest, and it was the bold and restless genius of the Wareguean Scandinavians, that revealed to the Slavo-Russians the greatness of their future destiny.

Wareguеans.

Scandinavia was agitated for many ages by civil discord, but colonists migrated from it almost without interruption, and these men were not so formidable from their numbers as from their courage and warlike habits. They were bold adventurers, who, banished for the crimes or excesses which they committed, sought an asylum or rather a new theatre for their exploits, in the uncultivated countries in

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the north and east of Russia. They were soon united under chiefs well qualified to command such bands. Their captains were princes, the sons of the sovereigns, who ruled over the petty kingdoms into which Scandinavia was then divided. A family quarrel, an amorous adventure, an unfortunate duel forced them to quit their country and remain in exile. Such leaders and such soldiers were not intimidated by any obstacle, and indeed they never met with any among the Slavonic tribes, which, although numerous, were neither organized nor concentrated, but dispersed over an immense extent of territory. The *Waregueans* or warriors founded without difficulty their military capitals at Old Holmgard, (probably Kolmogori on the Dwina) at New Holmgard or Novgorod, at Aldeiguburg on the Ladoga, Izborsk, Pleskow and many other places.[a] The eastern Slavi and more particularly the Russians were thus commanded by warlike chiefs, and they began from that time to know and to regulate their force. Covered with breast-plates, and armed with sharp swords, they easily routed the Slavonians in the interior, who were then defended by wooden bucklers. They undertook different expeditions in their fleets or numerous boats, (a characteristic trait of a Scandinavian people,) and attacked Constantinople and Kiow. Their armies were subdued or weakened on the Bosphorus, but other warriors opened new communications on the Wolga and its large tributary rivers. The Finnic and Hunnic tribes in these countries submitted to the Waregueans, who became Russians in the same way as the Norman Scandinavians became Norman French. Thus, long before the invasion of the Mongol Tartars, a number of powerful kingdoms, independently of the republicks of Novgorod and Pleskow, had been founded in central Russia, under the modest title of great dutchies and principalities. The invasion of the Asiatic hordes had all the character of a military occupation. It produced no national change, it effaced merely the traces of the Scandinavian democracy, and gave rise to despotic dynasties.

Settlements of the Waregueans.

Extension of the Russian name.

[a] See the article Scandinavia.

When Russia had shaken off the Tartar yoke, its own resources became apparent, and it has ever been the real Russian people, scattered from Lemberg, Halicz and Kiovia to Wologda and Woronesch, that formed the nucleus of its power. The rapid aggrandizement of the empire under the two Iwans, is not to be attributed to new conquests, but rather to reprisals gained from the Tartars, which were effected without difficulty, for it is an identity of language, customs and institutions, not the soil or the name of the master, that constitutes a nation or a country. The last reprisals were wrested in our own age from the Poles. The Ukraine, Podolia and Volhynia were in ancient times a part of Russia, and the Austrians are well aware that eastern Gallicia is only another name for Red Russia. It was by reprisals that the population of the empire was increased, and additional territory was all that it gained by its conquests.

Nucleus of the Russian nation.

The distinction between the nation itself and the countries conquered at different times by different sovereigns, ought to form the basis of every political reasoning on the subject of Russia.

We observe in the first or in the nation, an unity and concentration surpassing far that in Germany and France, a population sufficiently compact for the nature of the country, and an industry wholly national, though not in an advanced state.

The geographical, military and commercial relations of the empire correspond with its foreign conquests, which are thus dependent on the central provinces.

Successive additions.

We shall endeavour to estimate the successive additions made by the czars.

Epochs.	German square miles.[b]	Approximate population.
Under Iwan the First in 1462,	18,494	6,000,000
At his death, in 1505, (Junction of Novgorod, Permia, Tchernigov, Severia, &c.)	37,137	10,000,000

[b] A German mile is equal to 3 + ⅜ English miles, consequently one German square mile is equal to 11 + ½ English miles. The above table may therefore be converted into English square miles by multiplying the differeht numbers by 11 + ½.

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Epochs.	German square miles.	Approximate population.
At the death of Iwan II. in 1584, (Conquest of Kasan, Astracan, Siberia,)	125,465	12,000,000
At the death of Michael the First in 1645, (Conquests in Siberia, territory ceded to Poland.)	254,361	12,000,000
At the accession of Peter the First in 1689, (Kiovia retaken, &c.)	263,900	15,000,000
At the death of Peter I. in 1725, (Conquests on the Baltic, in Persia, &c.)	273,815	20,000,000
At the accession of Catherine the Second in 1763, (Conquests in Asia.)	319,538	25,000,000
At her death in 1796, (Countries conquered from the Turks, reprisals and conquests in Poland.)	331,810	36,000,000
At the death of Alexander in 1825, (Conquests in Poland, Finland, Moldavia and Persia.)	367,494	58,000,000

Inland resources.

The principal elements of the power of inland Russia were united under the two Iwans and Alexis Michaelowitz. The empire extended in 1588 from Smolensko to the lake Baikal, and comprehended within its vast limits, fertile countries, populous towns, inexhaustible mines, a numerous, frugal and hardy people, attached to their god and their czar. The name of "the great lord, the czar and autocrat of Russia," was seldom repeated by diplomatists, it held no conspicuous place in court manifestoes. The eastern religion and a national language written in Greek characters were the means of isolating the Russians from the Latin and German nations. Another cause tended to produce the same effect, the czars, with very few exceptions, chose formerly their wives from their own subjects, a custom which was common in the eleventh century. Lastly, the Muscovites, from their Asiatic manners, were compared or confounded with the Turks and Tartars. It must not however be inferred that well-informed statesmen were ignorant of the real power of the

Russian empire. Michalon, a Lithuanian noble, wrote the following memorable words to Sigismond the Second, about the year 1550.

Muscovites of the sixteenth century.

"The Muscovites and Tartars surpass us in bravery, temperance, frugality, and all the virtues connected with the stability of empires. The Muscovites laugh at our effeminacy, and give us their furs in exchange for our gold. We know more about luxury and refinement, but the Iwans and the Basils have taken our fortresses, one after another. These princes did not establish their power by gold, but by iron, by introducing the rigid discipline and the strict order that prevail among the Tartars. The laws are dispensed with gravity, and not, as in Poland, during a feast or debauch. The nobles are not permitted to mutilate or kill their slaves. No man can be condemned without the public sentence of a judge. While the Polish soldiers are fighting in the taverns, the Muscovites remain under arms, and guard the frontiers."

The ambassadors of different courts, and among others the learned Herberstein, were well aware of the increasing importance of Russia. The English having opened a communication with Archangel, foresaw the advantage of establishing commercial relations with that immense country, from which the Hanseatic merchants had derived so much wealth by the route of the Baltic. Denmark, instigated by the counsels of Poland, excited the czar against Sweden, and some very curious documents connected with these calamitous negotiations, are still extant. The French, Italian and Spanish diplomatists were less connected with Russia, and had not so much cause of alarm at its growing power. But the unknown giant waxed strong, and issued at last from his native forests. Peter the First organized, after the European manner, the forces that his ancestors had left him, and the victory of Poltawa, by which the judicious plans of Charles the Twelfth were frustrated, established in Europe the reputation of the Russian arms. But of all the conquests made by Peter the Great, one small spot only served to increase the resources of his em-

Efforts of Peter the First.

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pire. Foreign capital was diffused into the country from the maritime commerce of Petersburg, and it was employed in improving land, clearing forests and working mines. The political ramifications of the empire were afterwards extended by the matrimonial connexions between the Russian dynasty and the reigning families in Germany. The inhabitants of Petersburg adopted the manners, nay even the costume of other countries; superficial observers were dazzled by their vain imitations, but little improvement was made in the arts, because they were founded on the precarious basis of prohibitions and bounties, still they may perhaps have shed a lustre over the capital, the only place visited by travellers.

Revolutions under his successors.

Although Peter the First had the merit of establishing a European system in Russia, the influence or importance of the empire was not sufficient to place it on a level with the other great states before the time of Catherine the Second. Philosophic observers discovered the weakness of the government; the frequent revolutions that happened in the court, threatened the destruction of the monarchy, and betrayed the secret of the supposed reform in the national character, so gratuitously attributed to Peter the Great. The murder of Alexis in 1718, the sanguinary executions of 1724, (the greater number of which are not mentioned by Voltaire,) the massacre of a whole family[c] in 1730, the twenty thousand exiles during the administration of Biren, under the reign of Ann, the assassination of Sinclair, a Swedish courier, in 1739, the many victims mutilated or maimed, and the violent deaths of Peter the Third in 1763, and of Prince Iwan in 1764, exhibit a picture of anarchy to which no parallel can be found in the eighteenth century. Politicians, jealous of Russia, then observed the signs of its approaching dissolution. The empire was said to be in a state of decay before it had arrived at maturity. Agreeable delusion! consolatory prophecy for short-sighted statesmen! The dynasty was never secure, the nation remained in its primitive force.

[c] The Dolgorouki.

Insurrections of the nobles.

The uncertainty of the succession, occasioned by the culpable negligence of Peter the First, was the chief cause of all the revolutions in the palace. The Russians censured justly the arbitrary enactment of their sovereign, his successors were thus entitled to leave the crown to a foreigner, a privilege in direct opposition to the ancient laws of the nation, which, conformably to the experience of every age, established but did not regulate in express terms the principle of hereditary succession.[d] The empire was rendered more unstable by two other causes, that have escaped the notice of historians and political writers. Every ukase, before the year 1701, commenced with a formula, that acknowledged the rights of the boyars. *Weliki gospodar ukazal, y boyari prigoworelli*, the great lord has ordained, and the boyars have consented. The nobles were never unmindful of their ancient privileges, and they forced the empress Ann to submit to terms by which the government was changed in 1730, into a limited monarchy. It was not one individual who aspired to the throne, or thought that he had the best right to it, for the reigning family was an indirect branch of the house of Romanow, which was only connected by females with the house of Rourik. The Dolgorouki attempted to accomplish their ambitious projects in 1729; they as well as the Repnini were sprung from princes, and the ancestors of the Gallitzins, the Kurakins and other families were the great dukes of Lithuania.[e]

Exposed to a change of masters, to an insurrection of the nobles, and a war in the interior, Russia was less powerful after the time of Peter the First, than it had been under the reign of Iwan the Second. Had a great prince then filled the throne of Sweden, Poland or Turkey, the equilibrium might have been restored in northern and eastern Europe.

[d] Schlœzer's Historical Researches on the fundamental laws of the Russian nation, p. 21. German edition.

[e] Haven's Narrative, vol. I. chap. xiii. (Danish.)

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Military glory.

The military glory acquired by Marshal Munich did not long redound on the Russian arms, and the seven years' war was a proof that the immense multitudes which Russia could bring into the field, although brave, were destitute of moral force, and not formidable under the command of native generals.[f] The navy was chiefly composed of foreign officers, particularly English and Danes, but these admirals were ill provided with ships and seamen. The Finlanders were not then subdued, the forests in the Polish Ukraine did not then belong to Russia, and it was discovered in the reign of Elizabeth, that the oaks in Kasan were not durable, and ill adapted for ship-building.

Political intrigues.

The influence of Russia, before the long and brilliant reign of Catherine the Second, was confined to political intrigues in Poland and Sweden, intrigues, by which these old bulwarks of Europe were slowly undermined. A solitary exception may be mentioned, it was the interference of Russia in the war of the Austrian succession, an event that proved not the power and credit of the court of Petersburg, but rather the weakness and decrepitude of the court at Versailles. It was not a Russian army of 36,000 men, that forwarded the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. M. Bestuchef brought matters to a conclusion by threatening to bring forward a second army, although he was well aware that the second army was neither complete nor in a state to march. That example of the good effect which a mere shadow of power may produce, has been since too often imitated by the Russian and many other cabinets.

Accessions made by Catherine.

It was during the war against the Turks in 1770, and the division of Poland in 1773, that Russia first acted the part of a great nation. Important conquests were gained, but the designs of Catherine might have been foreseen by the other European powers. It was in the same reign that the fleet formed by Peter the First, and wholly neglected by his successors, sailed round Europe, ruled in the Archipelago, and threatened the subjugation

[f] Marshal Munich was, by birth, a Danish subject.

of Egypt. Native Russians, such men as Romanzow, Panin and Souwarrow then first acquired military glory, and although Souwarrow is the only one of these generals, who was not indebted for all his victories to his aid-de-camps, Russia was ranked among the great military nations. Catherine knew much better than Peter the First, how to purchase partisans, and their panegyricks shed a lustre on her success; she knew well what advantages might be derived from the delusions of a brilliant court, where luxury and gallantry reigned. All the women and men of letters became her friends, their vanity and effeminacy, the prevailing vices of civilized nations in the eighteenth century, were flattered. The empress made a more profitable appeal to the avidity of princes, an avidity, that was all powerful in the European cabinets, at the time that shallow politicians calculated the strength of states by the number of their inhabitants. The division of Poland was the masterpiece of her policy. It was not merely the provinces added to the empire; as soon as the law of nations was abolished, each great power might adopt with impunity, and on the most frivolous pretences, the system of usurpation and invasion. Thus, Russia has never concluded a treaty since that epoch without acquiring additional territory, sometimes, as in the case of Tilsit, at the expense of her own allies, nor has the same state ever made the least sacrifice for the general interests of Europe,—prudently abandoning the maritime rights, which at its instigation, Denmark defended with a heroism worthy of better success.

Division of Poland.

Russia acquired the ports on the Black Sea, and the forests in the Ukraine; but we admire the plausible pretexts that were employed to obtain them. The empress said to the *dissidents* in Poland; "we come to protect you;" the Poles believed her. She said to Austria—We have given you Gallicia, an equivalent for the loss of Silesia; the Austrians became her allies. The *old lion at Potsdam*, not then in his dotage, was deceived by the mean lure of an additional province. Literary, philo-

Policy of Catherine.

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sophical and religious associations were enlisted in the war against Turkey, and although that state is so essential to the equilibrium of Europe, philanthropy became subservient to the ambition of Catherine. New geographical arrangements were substituted for the ancient law of nations, the political dissolution of Europe necessarily followed, the enemies and rivals of Russia expected to share the spoils, and the empress made them her accomplices.

Alexander.

Alexander adopted in the early part of his reign, a better and a wiser system, he desired not to add to the immense extent of Russia, but, conformably to the wishes of the wisest patriots, to direct the energy of his people in improving the resources of their country, the different kinds of culture, and the many valuable productions. He was anxious to derive some advantage from the vast conquests of his predecessors, to connect them with the ancient provinces, to attach the inhabitants to their common country, and to form a national character out of so many conflicting interests. If these noble intentions were soon given up, the cause is too well known; it was the alarm excited by revolutionary and imperial France, that invaded in the short space of ten years, more countries than Russia had done in ten centuries. Impelled at last into the same career, Alexander made two conquests, most important to Russia, most dangerous to Europe. The coasts of Finland have supplied the navy with good seamen, and Poland has been changed into an army of observation in the centre of Europe. There is no end to conquests, one province demands another, Sweden, Norway, Copenhagen and Hamburgh may be necessary to complete the naval stations on the Baltic, the Hungarian mountains and the Silesian fortresses may form the military frontier of Poland. Such limits may seem *natural* to another Iwan, and wherefore may not one appear on the throne of the czars? What power can now resist an empire, that extends its sway over a twenty-eighth part of the terrestrial surface, and includes among its subjects a fifteenth part of the human race?

Accessions made by Alexander.

Natural limits of Russia.

It has been shown that the mean term of the population is confined to the central zone, and that it augments rapidly towards the east and the south. The people in the conquered provinces are rather decreasing than increasing, therefore the real Russians make up the annual addition in the number of inhabitants, an addition, according to the lowest estimate, not less than half a million. The proportion of one in every hundred, is not great in a country like Russia, where the rich but uncultivated lands are extensive, where forests, fishing and the chase, as well as the ordinary arts and trades, afford the sure and easy means of subsistence. It appears, however, from the most correct statistical researches, that different local accessions must be partly attributed to frequent migrations from one government to another. Russia contains at least 150,000 square leagues of territory,[g] that might be rendered as productive as Germany, and might maintain about one hundred and fifty millions of inhabitants. Can the czars wish to conquer, when they see the germs of powerful empires within their dominions?

Annual increase in the population.

The great extent of country renders it difficult to estimate all the products of labour. Statistical tables, even on the supposition that they are kept with the utmost care, can only exhibit approximate results. General conclusions relative to such a mass of provinces must be necessarily incorrect; to obtain any thing like accuracy, the objects compared must be reduced to a very small number, or confined within narrow limits. The rearing of cattle, by which term we include every variety from the camel of the southern steppes to the rein deer of the arctic zone, forms still a great source of wealth. All the wandering tribes, and those connected with them, pay great attention to their horses, and the same care is generally bestowed on their oxen; but the Russian gives himself little concern about these useful animals. The rich and abundant pastures in the Ukraine, enable the inhabitants

Progress of industry.

Rearing of cattle.

[g] Seven hundred and fifty thousand English square miles.

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to export their large oxen and swift horses; but it is only on the estates of a few nobles, that any progress has been made in that department of agriculture. The same remark is applicable to the rearing of sheep, for the improvement which we have observed in some provinces, is also the effect of individual and local efforts. It is certain, on the other hand, that the quantity of butcher meat, ordinary wool and leather of every sort, exceeds greatly what is consumed in the empire. The preparation of *ioufics* or Russian leather, is an art confined to Russia, and the demand for fine wool in the different manufactories is not increasing. The agriculture of so vast a country is subject, independently of the changes produced by labour, to the variations consequent on climate.

Agriculture, produce, &c.

New lands are laboured, cultivation extends in every direction, and its progress is only obstructed by the difficulty of obtaining outlets, a difficulty that is most severely felt in the most fruitful provinces. It appears from the official tables, which have been only published for the years 1802, 1803, and 1804, that the annual excess of grain, (chiefly wheat and rye,) varies in the whole empire, from forty-three to sixty-four millions of tshetverts, or from eighty-four to a hundred and twenty millions of bushels.[h] That quantity is made up of the addition of the surplus produce in different provinces, and does not determine the total exportation, of which the value was calculated in 1805 at forty-five millions of rubles. According to the same official tables, the excess of consumption is always greatest in the governments of Petersburg, Moscow, Archangel, Wologda and Permia. There is in ordinary years, an excess of production in the Siberian governments, and in the provinces of Orenburg and Astrakhan. The extreme abundance commences at Kasan and Nischnei-Novgorod, extends across Penza, Tambof, Orel and Kursk to Katerinoslaw, is diffused throughout Little Russia and the Polish Ukraine, becomes less general in Lithuania, and disappears gradually on the shores of the Baltic

[h] Each of these bushels is equal to 2¾ imperial bushels.

May not that natural fertility have been observed by some tribes from the remotest antiquity?

It was from these countries that the Slavonic and Finnic hordes, conducted by Gothic kings, marched against the Roman empire; but the sterile Carpathian heights and the arid Scythian steppe formed an impassable barrier to ancient geographers.

Mines.

The mines, particularly those on the Ural mountains, were worked at a very ancient period, but it is only in modern times that the Russians have applied themselves to that branch of industry. Gold, silver and copper are more abundant in the Asiatic governments, or along the last declivities of what is still called the great central ridge. The Russian Peru extends from Perm to the country beyond Irkutsk, and government, far from following the singular opinion of a French traveller, who advised the Russians to retire to this side of the Jenessei, may allege specious reasons for including within the limits of the empire all the Belour and the Great Altai. Iron, the most useful of the metals, is more common, or at least it is more generally worked on the European side from Perm to Orenburg and Wiatka, and from Nischgorod to Tula and Tambof. The cause must be attributed to the demand for the article in the most populous governments, and to the proximity of different outlets. The total produce of the copper mines is greater than 200,000 pouds,[i] and that of the iron mines is about six millions.[k] Russia possesses another treasure in the numerous salt lakes and marshes in the Siberian steppes, and in the country to the north of the Caspian Sea. The salt obtained throughout the empire, about twenty years ago, was not less than twenty-six millions of pouds, and it has since increased indefinitely with the population.

Fisheries, chase, &c.

The produce of the fisheries and the chase is very valuable; furs and other articles are sold for three millions

[i] Eight millions of pounds. [k] Two hundred and forty millions of pounds.

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of rubles,[1] the value of the different fish amounts to fifteen millions, and the half of that sum is obtained from the stations on the Wolga and the Caspian Sea. Although several provinces are ill supplied with wood, the forests are in general inexhaustible. It appears from a calculation made by M. Hermann in 1804, that there were in thirty-one governments, 8,195,295 firs well adapted for masts, and at least thirty-six inches in diameter, a number much more than sufficient for all the fleets in the world, but in addition to it there were 86,869,243 that might have been used in building houses. The same writer supposed the number of oaks in twenty-two governments to be 374,804, and each of them was more than twenty-six inches in diameter, those of a less dimension exceeded 229,570,427. The exportation of lint and flax, two very useful plants, amounted in 1802 to twenty millions of rubles.

Manufactures.

The wealth derived from the different manufactures may be taken into consideration along with the natural riches of the empire. We have already adverted to the domestic industry of the Russian peasant, and his aptitude for imitation. Government has encouraged the application of that talent by abolishing monopolies, and rendering the arts and trades as free in the country as in the towns. Increased industry and activity have been the results of these wise regulations, but the people are too eager to secure prompt returns for their labour, consequently, few manufactures are carried to any degree of perfection, and the different goods are much inferior to others of the same sort in foreign countries. Every kind of leather, particularly Russian leather, jewellery, cordage, sail cloth, soap, tallow and oil form exceptions to the above rule. Although the Russians have not made the same improvement in other articles, a great quantity of their own manufactures, imperfect as they are, is consumed, and the importation of foreign goods is proportionally diminished. The distillation of spirits from grain is a very

Spirits.

[1] The value of the ruble is subject to great fluctuation, it has varied from three shillings and two pence to nine pence.

important and indeed a very useful article in the Russian trade, for it is obtained from native produce, it supersedes the necessity of foreign spirits, it is sold at a cheap rate, and many millions of peasants and workmen require it in so cold a climate. It might be very difficult to calculate the quantity consumed every year, but it is certain that the revenue farmers pay annually to the crown sixteen millions of rubles for their right to the duty. *Braga* is the best beer in Russia, and its name is a sufficient proof that the art of making it was known to the Scandinavians, some other kinds are nearly as good, and the great consumption thus occasioned, tends to diminish the use of foreign wines, which are still imported to the amount of four millions of rubles. Little attention is bestowed on the simple art of making arms and different iron utensils. Although that art has been long known in Tula, the demand is not supplied from all the works, a million of scythes and other articles are annually imported, these are of a much better kind than the others made in the country, the Russian tradesmen are satisfied if they can sell their goods, they are indifferent about their quality. The linen is not very fine, but the quantity imported is inconsiderable. The necessity of foreign cloth is not superseded by the coarse woollen stuffs manufactured by the peasants, the same may be said of the cotton goods, but the importation of silk is much diminished, the raw material or the produce of the southern governments has greatly increased of late years, and if the province of Georgia were well cultivated, it might supply sufficient silk, not to mention fruits and wine, for the whole of Russia. It may be better, instead of enumerating minutely different objects liable to daily variation, to state that the extraordinary efforts of government to extend and improve the manufactures, have been accompanied with greater success than foreigners would wish. That country appears indeed to be barbarous and wretched, where the roads are paved with the trunks of trees, where wood smeared in pitch is a substitute for candles, where the labourers are not provided with good saws or scythes, where

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extensive granite quarries are neglected, and houses constructed of coarse planks. But if these defects be more closely examined, it may be discovered that they are partly occasioned by the great abundance of raw material, and also by the long continuance of established custom. The peasant is content with his wooden or clay cottage, he experiences no inconvenience from the use of his iron instruments. Thus, although there are many voids in civilization, government advances steadily towards that remote object, which it has proposed, namely, to have no real want that may not be supplied by its own resources. The means employed at present to ensure that great end, are the abolition of monopolies, with the exception of those on salt and spirits, the freedom of industry, which is slightly modified by distinctions that government has introduced between merchants, manufacturers and tradesmen, and lastly, a very minute but complicated system of customs and prohibitions.

Revenue.

The revenues of the crown are estimated at a hundred and ten millions of rubles, or, according to others, at a hundred and thirty millions of florins, (L.13,746,780,) but strangers have not the means of ascertaining the exact amount. It is from the revenue that the multiplied and varied expenses of government are defrayed; the salaries attached to the different offices are not great, and the sum might be more than sufficient for the purpose, were it not for the waste and abuses inseparable from the administration of so vast a country.

The revenue is obtained from the following sources; first, the *capitation*, to which the burgesses and all the peasants are subject; second, the tax on the capital of merchants, an individual declares the state of his capital in trade, without constraint and without a judicial examination, but his privileges, commercial immunities and personal consideration depend on the sum specified in his declaration; third, the royal *domains*, a very important branch of the revenue, it comprises the *obrok* or the tax paid by the peasants of the crown, the rents of the lands set in lease, and the produce of the government manufactories;

fourth, *the duties levied at the maritime and inland custom-houses*, the amount of the former is supposed to be equal to fourteen millions of rubles, that of the latter is not so great; fifth, the tax on the sale of heritable property, which is fixed at five per cent, and levied on houses, lands and peasants or vassals; sixth, *the monopoly on spiritous liquors*, from which, as has been already observed, the government derives a revenue of 16,000,000 rubles; seventh, *the monopoly on salt*, the price fixed by the crown is thirty-five *kopcks* for the poud,[m] the profit derived is inconsiderable, but the people are enabled to purchase an article of primary necessity at a cheap rate; eighth, *the regular duty on the produce of the mines*, from which, according to M. Hupel, government obtains annually 1,800,000 rubles; ninth, the stamps and post office; lastly, the *iassak* or furs exacted from the wandering tribes.

Expenditure.

The expenditure cannot be more correctly estimated than the revenue; the one, however, appears to balance the other in time of peace; but it is certain that government could not carry on a long war without loans or extraordinary sacrifices. The minister of finance acknowledges a national debt of L.25,200,000; a sinking fund has been formed for its extinction, and it co-operates as effectually as in the best governed states.

Land forces.

The number of troops, including the Polish army of 50,000, are one million, but not more than 700,000 are regular soldiers, and of these 48,000 are chosen men, who form the guard of the czar. If the extent of the frontiers on the side of Europe, the distances, the points that may be attacked, and the population of the empire be taken into consideration, it might appear that the military establishment is not proportionably so great as in other continental monarchies. The project of changing gradually the population on the royal domains into a permanent militia, after the manner of the Cossacks, and under

Military colonies.

[m] The kopek is nearly equivalent to a halfpenny.

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the name of *military colonies*, might give Russia the command of an almost unbounded force. Russian statesmen are doubtful if the obstacles against the execution of such a plan could be removed. The revenue might be inadequate for the necessary expense; besides, the serfs are not like the Cossacks, and their habits are widely different from those of warlike tribes.

Navy.

The navy, although well organized, is much less important than the army; it is on a smaller scale, and consists only of 32 vessels, and from two to three hundred sloops of war. The coasts of Finland and Esthonia, the nursery of the Russian navy, are peopled by good mariners, who are accustomed to petty warfare, they may command the Black Sea and the Baltic, but they are unused to the navigation of the ocean, and the Russian fleets cannot contend with others of maritime nations.

Form of Government.

Such are the actual resources of the Russian empire; it is governed according to the will of a single individual, and his will is by law unlimited, no restraint can be imposed on it; but the emperors of the house of Holstein have more than once declared that they would wish to follow fixed laws in whatever appertains to the rights of individuals and corporations. Arbitrary enactments are partly abolished, indeed they are only enforced against the great, or courtiers less solicitous about liberty than personal aggrandizement.

Council of the empire.

The council of the empire has been instituted to render the laws and the administration less liable to change; the emperor presides over it, and the most important affairs are the subjects of its deliberation, but every matter connected with the foreign policy of government is reserved for the imperial cabinet. The senate or supreme tribunal is the highest court of judicature in the empire; it may extend its cognizance over all causes, but in some decisions, an appeal may be made to the royal clemency. The senate is divided into eight sections, three of which are held at Moscow, and five at Petersburg; its authority might be still more salutary, if it

Senate.

could put an end to the corruption of the inferior judges. The holy synod watches over the interests of the established church, but its decrees are issued in the name of the emperor. The members of the Lutheran and reformed church enjoy the same privileges as in Finland, Esthonia, Livonia and Courland. No restraint is attached to any form of faith, and it is the enlightened policy of government to respect acquired rights, to confirm the privileges of provinces, towns, corporations and individuals; if any changes have been introduced, they are in general favourable to civil and religious liberty. The want of fundamental laws and social guarantees was acknowledged by Alexander, and that prince in his dying moments, meditated reforms, which any benevolent man might suggest, but which an energetick one only could put into execution.

Holy synod.

BOOK CXII.

M. Hassel's Table of the Population in Russia, Poland, and the vassal States, 1st January 1823.*

Names of the Divisions.	Square miles, fifteen to a degree.		Population.	Number of inhabitants in each square mile.
Russian Empire	367,494	·02	59.263.700	161
Long. 17°—30′—222°—20′—E. of London. Lat. 38°—40′—80°—10′ N.				
DIVISIONS.				
A. European Russia	72,861	·31	44,118,600	606
B. Kingdom of Poland	2,293	·23	3,541,900	1,544
C. Asiatic Russia	268,339	·43	11,663,200	43⅛
D. American Russia	24,000	·—	50,000	2¼
POLITICAL RELATIONS.				
1. *Contiguous possessions* (Including Georgia and the kingdom of Poland.)	293,701	·93	57,681,000	195
2. *Vassal provinces*†	73,792	·09	1,582,000	21
3. Republic of Cracow (Under the protection of Russia, Austria and Prussia.)	23	·31	96,000	4,118
A. EUROPEAN RUSSIA, namely,	72,861	·31	44,118,600	606
a. Baltic provinces including,	9,023	·23	3,861,300	428

* It may be seen from the critical observations on the table, that we do not adopt all M. Hassel's conclusions; but, in order to enable our readers to form a correct estimate of the Russian population, we thought it best to place before them the methodical and minutely calculated table of that learned writer. It was thus necessary to adhere to his results, although neither the arbitrary divisions of Asiatic and European Russia, nor several other subdivisions accord with our description, which is founded on physical principles.

* Each of these square miles is equal to about twenty English square miles.

† The following are the details relative to the vassal provinces.

a. Imiretta, Mingrelia, Guria	407	·16	210,000	516
b. Tcherkessia (Circassia)	1,535	·76	550,000	368
c. Awchasa	238	·22	60,000	252
d. Daghestan	434	·82	184,000	373
e. Schirwan	445		133,000	299
f. Steppe of the Kirguises	31,681	·13	360,000	11
g. Tchukotski	15,050		35,000	½
h. Russian America	24,000		50,000	2¼

Table continued, &c.

1. Government of St. Petersburg	848	.32	844,900	994
2. Government of Finland	6,402	.79	1,378,500	215½
3. ——— Esthonia	323	.93	302,600	935
4. ——— Livonia	938	.62	754,000	803
5. ——— Courland	509	.12	581,300	1,142
B. Great Russia including,	43,390	.25	23,777,900	538
6. Government of Moscow	474	.23	1,337,900	2,823
7. ——— Smolensko	1,008	.68	1,325,700	1,314
8. ——— Pskow	1,045	.41	865,200	827
9. ——— Tver	1,135	.40	1,260,700	1,110
10. ——— Novgorod	2,578	.59	915,500	216
11. ——— Olonetz	3,587	.10	359,800	100
12. ——— Archangel and Nova Zembla	16,223	.52	263,100	16
13. Government of Wologda	6,867		802,200	117
14. ——— Jaroslaw	671	.88	1,038,100	1,545
15. ——— Kostroma	1,808	.73	1,455,500	805
16. ——— Wladimir	920	.64	1,334,500	1,449
17. ——— Nishgorod	961	.45	1,379,900	1,435
18. ——— Tambof	1,271	.53	1,422,100	1,118
19. ——— Riæzan	781	.48	1,308,600	1,647
20. ——— Tula	558	.53	1,039,800	1,860
21. ——— Kaluga	395	.15	1,175,100	2,999
22. ——— Orel	849	.87	1,299,500	1,529
23. ——— Kursk	701	.66	1,649,000	2,350
24. ——— Woronesch	1,547	.80	1,445,900	934
C. Little Russia including,	4,137	.82	5,674,000	1,371
25. Government of Kiew	978	.86	1,472,100	1,503
26. ——— Tschernigov	1,189	.84	1,410,000	1,184
27. ——— Pultawa	850	.76	1,877,500	2,207
28. ——— Slobodes of the Ukraine	1,118	.36	914,400	817
D. Southern Russia	8,772	.87	2,316,600	265
29. Government of Iekaterinoslaw	1,417	.02	826,100	583
30. ——— Kerson	1,206	.58	459,400	380
31. ——— Taurida	1,646	.47	346,200	211
32. Country of the Donian Cossacks	3,611	.58	369,800	102

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Table continued, &c.

33. Province of Bessarabia	891	·22	315,100	353
E. Western Russia including	7,537	·09	8,488,900	1,125
34. Government of Wilna	1,081	·26	1,357,400	1,255
35. ——— Grodno	326	·19	868,100	1,619
36. Province of Bialystock	158		224,600	1,422
37. Government of Witepsk	668	·11	934,900	1,398
38. ——— Mohilew	918	·35	985,400	1,073
39. ——— Minsk	1,832	·36	1,160,100	633
40. ——— Volhynia	1,394	·47	1,496,300	1,072
41. ——— Podolia	948	·35	1,462,190	1,542
B. Kingdom of Poland *(See Poland.)*	2,293	·25	3,541,900	1,514
C. Asiatic Russia	258,339	·48	11,683,000	43⅕
A. *Kingdom of Kasan*	11,521	·79	5,746,250	498
1. Government of Kasan	1,123	·90	1,028,150	915
2. ——— Wiatka	2,221	·98	1,293,800	582
3. ——— Perm	5,996		1,269,900	212
4. ——— Simbirsk	1,402	·14	1,119,400	798
5. ——— Pensa	777	·77	1,035,000	1,331
B. *Kingdom of Astrakhan*	13,823	·03	2,598,700	118
6. Government of Astrakhan	3,899	·88	222,700	57
7. ——— Saratow	4,297		1,333,500	310
8. ——— Orenburg	5,626	·15	1,043,500	185
C. *Provinces of Caucasus*	5,478	·51	1,673,500	305
9. Province of Caucasus	1,585	·08	146,500	92
10. ——— Georgia	832	·40	390,000	373
11. ——— Imeretta, Mingrelia, Guria, Awchasa	645	·48	270,000	418
12. Tscherkessia (Circassia)	1,535	·76	550,000	368
13. ——— Daghestan	434	·82	184,000	373
14. ——— Schirwan	445		133,000	299
D. *Steppe of the Kirguises*	31,681	·15	360,000	11

E. Kingdom of Siberia	211,847	.23	1,602,000	7
F. Russian islands in the Eastern and Frozen Ocean	1,667	.90	11,550	7
G. Russian America	24,000		50,000	2¼
Republick of Cracow	23	.51	96,000	4,118

Critical observations on the preceding Table.

Population of the Russian Empire.	According to M. Liechtenstein's Stat. Tab. 1819.	42,769,800
	——— M. Crome (Ueborsicht.) . . .	45,392,283
	——— M. Wickmann (Darstellung) 1811.	42,265,600
	——— M. Ziablowski (Geografia, &c.) 1813.	44,909,888
	——— M. Wsewoloiski (Description, &c.)	46,000,000

It was first shown by *M. Balbi* of Venice, that these vague indications are much too low, and that to arrive at any thing like accuracy, it was necessary to make a sufficient allowance for the yearly and natural increase in the population. M. Balbi developed these principles in his admirable compendium of universal geography, (Compendio di Giografia Universale) and at a later period in his essay on Portugal. He likewise applied them to determine the population of Russia, and the proportion between the number of births and deaths in that country; a subject, on which M. Hermann had written many valuable articles in the memoirs of the academy of Petersburg, and by that means convinced government of the importance of tables of mortality. M. Balbi made use of these and other data, and fixed the population for 1822, at fifty-four millions.

M. Hassel adhered strictly to M. Balbi's plan, but thought it unnecessary to mention the labours or even the name of his predecessor. The census of 1796, and those of 1783 and 1816, are the basis of his calculation, and, as an equivalent to the increase in the population, he adds for each year, one and a half to every hundred inhabitants. Although the principle is simple, apparently certain, and indeed the only one of which the application can be general, it leads sometimes to inaccurate results.

1st, It appears from the observations of Count Bray that the arable land in many governments is not nearly so extensive as is generally supposed, and government believes the annual augmentation to be lower than that which is assumed in the statistical calculations.

The opinion of government is strengthened by the statements of some Russian authors. Ziablowski concluded that the population of Olonetz in 1813, was not greater than 245,238; whilst, according to the census of 1783, and the increasing progression, it ought to have been equal to 329,056.

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The following is a more authentic example, and one taken from a fertile government. It appears from the census of 1796, that the inhabitants of Kasan amounted to 763,000. Now, according to the principle of proportional increase, there should have been 991,900 in 1816. But the census of that year makes the number only 943,179, consequently the difference is greater than 48,000, or more than a fifth of the supposed augmentation.

2d, There is a constant migration of Great Russians from the north to the south, along the Wolga and the Kama. Some boatmen and labourers return to their native land, but many do not, and the governments in the centre are partly peopled by the inhabitants of those in the north.

The Little Russians migrate to the Asiatic provinces, and the same change that takes place in the northern governments is thus effected. The habits of the Tartars are the cause of another variation, for whole hordes, like the Tartars of the Crimea and Bessarabia, remove for ever beyond the limits of the empire. M. Karaczay calculated that the population in the province of Bessarabia exceeded 433,000 at the time of the conquest; at present it is not more than 315,000.

3d, It might be easily proved that every calculation relative to the governments of Little Russia must be wholly uncertain in its details, because the boundaries have been so often changed that it is impossible to derive any data from the census of 1796, and Kiew was the only one in which a census was taken in 1806.

The same remark is applicable to other provinces.

Lastly, There are some parts of the empire, in which the increase is greater than one and a half to the hundred. Thus Novgorod had, according to the census of 1783, a population of 277,427 male serfs or peasants; the statistical tables give an accession of 51,098 in a period of thirteen years; but the total number, as determined by the census of 1796, amounted to 356,127, and the addition was therefore equal to 78,700. M. Ziablowski, who is not guilty of exaggeration, supposes the population of Minsk in Russian Lithuania, equal to 1,205,200 souls, while M. Hassel, on the other hand, cannot make it by his calculation, greater than 1,160,000. If attention be paid to the dates, it may be seen from the work of the Russian geographer, that the augmentation in Volhynia and Podolia is also greater than what is assumed in the geography of Weimar.

It follows from these remarks that the annual increase is very unequal in different governments, and also that the number of inhabitants in many provinces is still uncertain. But the total population in 1823, is not perhaps greatly overrated by M. Hassel, one or two millions may at most be deducted from it, and, as Russia must have gained

nearly that number in a period of four years, it may contain at present fifty-nine millions of inhabitants.

If Russia was as well peopled as Sweden, it might contain 95 millions; if its population was as compact as that of Germany, the number might amount to 210 millions, and on the supposition that the population was the same as in the Chinese empire, in which there are several vast deserts, it might exceed 432 millions. Although we make allowance for the obstacles, which depend on the soil, climate and institutions, the number of inhabitants may in less than a century be proportionably greater than in Sweden.

Table of the population of the different nations in the Russian Empire.

A. Slavonic nations.

1. Great Russians	34,000,000
2. Little Russians	9,000,000
3. Lithuanians	1,300,000
4. Poles	5,500,000
5. Lettonians and Kures	600,000
6. Bulgarians and Servians	30,000
	50,430,000

B. Finnic and Finno-Hunnic nations.

Finlanders (Ymes, Quænes, and Kareles,)	1,380,000
Ehstes	480,000
Lives and Krevines	3,000
Laplanders	9,000
Syriaines	30,000
Woguls	12,000
Permiakes	34,000
Tchouvasches	370,000
Tcheremisses	190,000
Mordvines	92,000
Wotiakes	141,000
Ostiakes of Obi	107,000
Teptiaires	114,000
	2,962,000

BOOK CXII.

Population of the different nations in the Russian empire.

C. Tartar or Turkish nations.

Tartars or Turks Proper	1,204,000
Nogays	154,200
Truchmenes	200,000
Kirguis	360,000
Khivintzes	2,300
Boukhares (Tartars)	10,500
Meschtcheriakes and Arabs	37,000
Baschkirs	140,000
Tcleoutes	1,000
Iakoutes	88,000
	2,197,200

D. Caucasian nations.

Grusians or Georgians	560,000
Lesghians	230,000
Tcherkesses or Circassians	190,000
Awchases	90,000
Ossetes	42,000
Midzhigis	43,000
	1,155,000

E. Teutonic and Scandinavian nations.

Germans	380,000
Swedes	56,000
Danes	1,200
	437,200

F. Mongul nations.

Buriaites	120,000
Kalmucks or Oelocts	75,000
Kalkas	18,000
	213,000

Population of the different nations in the Russian empire.

G. Different tribes on the north-east.

Tunguses		50,000
Samoides		20,000
Tribes of Yenisei (Klaproth)		38,000
Kamtschadales		9,500
Ioukaguires		3,200
Koriakes		8,000
		128,700
Esquimaux, &c.		
Tchouktches	50,000	
Kitaigues	3,000	
Tchugatches	5,000	
Konaigues	8,000	
Kenaitzes	4,000	
	70,000	
American Tribes		20,000

H. Different Asiatic nations.

Jews	460,000
Armenians	74,000
Tadjiks or Persian Boukhares	15,000
Zigeunes	10,000
Hindoos	500
Arabs	6,200
Parses	2,000
	567,700

I. Different European nations.

Moldavians	85,000
Wallachians	45,000
Greeks	21,000
English, French, &c.	6,000
	157,000

BOOK CXII.

Table of the principal towns in the Russian empire.

Petersburg,	9,500	305,000
Moskwa or Moscow,	10,400	190,000
Warschau (Warsaw)	8,824	117,000
Kasan,	4,300	50,000
Kiew,	3,728	40,000
Astrakhan,	4,000	36,000
Odessa,	4,150	35,000
Tula,	3,800	35,000
Irkutzk,	2,500	30,000
Cronstadt,	2,000	30,000
Jaroslaw,	2,754	28,000
Tobolsk,	2,300	25,000
Kaluga,	3,608	25,000
Kursk,	2,340	25,000
Wilna,	3,000	25,000
Tver,	2,400	24,000
Riga,	1,687	23,000
Orel,	2,871	22,000
Orenburg,	2,866	20,000
Akmetschet,	2,000	20,000
Kharkow,	1,552	18,000
Tiflis,	3,684	18,000
Uralsk,	3,000	18,000
Neshin,	3,000	16,000
Mohilew,	2,100	16,000
Archangel,	1,933	16,000
Tomsk,	2,274	15,000
Simbirsk,	1,400	15,000
Reval,	1,584	15,000
Worgnesch,	3,000	15,000
Torshok,	1,793	15,000
Tambow,	1,800	15,000
Tscherkask,	1,916	15,000
Akermann,	2,000	15,000
Witebsk,	1,943	15,000
Wologda,	1,664	14,000
Bolchow,	1,800	14,000
Achtyrka,	1,137	12,788
Nachitschewan,	2,487	12,108
Smolensko,	1,500	12,000
Pskow,	1,486	12,000

Table of the principal towns in the Russian empire.

Ustjug Weliki,	2,200	12,000
Nishgorod,	1,826	12,000
Jelisawetgrad,	1,600	12,000
Wiatka,	2,000	12,000
Endery,	3,000	12,000
Koslow,	928	11,502
Abo,	1,100	11,300
Mitau,	800	11,000
Wiaisma,	2,000	11,000
Pensa,	1,687	11,000
Sumy,	1,238	10,495
Lublin,	1,824	10,300
Tarku,	1,080	10,000
Toropetz,	1,206	10,000
Novgorod,	1,552	10,000
Kasimow,	1,800	10,000
Korotscha,	1,500	10,000
Putilw,	1,400	10,000
Tchernigow,	2,400	10,000
Pultawa,	1,200	10,000
Kherson,	1,500	10,000
Bender,	1,500	10,000
Berdyczew,	1,400	10,000

BOOK CXIII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. Kingdom of Poland. Republick of Cracow.

BOOK CXIII.

Division of Poland.

THE name of Poland, although effaced from ephemeral maps and statistical tables, is not likely to be soon forgotten; it must be remembered by geographers as long as any attention is paid to natural and national divisions. The fate of Poland appears to have been fixed for some generations at least, by the arrangements made at the congress of Vienna, but before these arrangements were settled, several treaties had been concluded, broken and concluded anew. The large provinces of Lithuania and the Ukraine, which were added to Russia, are, by the religion and language of the inhabitants, more Russian than Polish. The region on the Vistula, or the real Poland, has been divided, the southern portion forms at present the kingdom of Gallicia or *Austrian Poland*, which includes all the high country in the ancient monarchy; although subject to Austria, the administration is national, and the people are represented. The country in the centre, or a part of the former Great and Little Poland makes up the new kingdom which is united to Russia, the form of government is representative, the legislative and executive branches are in a great degree independent. *The republick of Cracow* on the west, is under the protection of Austria, Prussia and Russia, and lastly, the *great dutchy of*

Posen on the north-west is added to Prussia, but its provincial assemblies are not abolished. The wisdom of sovereigns has preserved a sort of union between these states, particularly between the three first, we shall therefore endeavour to give a connected account of them, without confounding one with another.

Name.

Poland or Polska signifies a plain; the early inhabitants, like many tribes, denominated it from the nature of the country, and they themselves were thus distinguished from the other branches of the great Slavonic race. Many examples of the same kind might be mentioned, a Chrowate or Croatian means a mountaineer, and the Po-Morzi or Pomeranians signify a people in the neighbourhood of the sea. [a]

Sarmatian plain.

The greater part of former Poland is an immense plain that extends from the Baltic to the shores of the Euxine, or at least to the small chains that cross the basin of the Dnieper on the south of Volhynia, and unite to the south of Lemberg with the first declivities in the Carpathian range. These declivities, though low, appear anew near Zamosk, between the Bug and the San, and also near Kielce and Konskie in the country between the Vistula and the Pelica. Low hills and headlands can only be discovered throughout the vast region, which extends to the north of these limits. Lithuania, Courland, White and Black Russia, Polesia, Podlachia, almost all Great Poland, Pomerelia and the whole of Prussia are in many places covered with a deep layer of sand, which is seen on the plains, and extends along the course of the rivers. It is of a white or light colour in the interior, and comparatively

[a] Michow, Chron. Reg. Pol. c. II. Dlugossi, lib. I. p. 22 and 45. Cromer, Polonia; edit. Elzev.

[The present article is chiefly derived from our own work on Poland, (Tableau de la Pologne) which was published in 1807, but the edition is now exhausted. Although cited by M. Hassel among the *valuable* works that he had consulted, it is very imperfectly analysed in the geography of Weymar. The substance of it is not to be found in Wybicki or any modern Polish author. Our information is derived from ancient writers, we are indebted to the moderns for few additional facts.]

BOOK CXIII.

dark near the shores of the sea.[b] But clay and marshy land are scattered in many parts of the sandy belt, one ridge traverses Samogitia,[c] and another, which is higher and intersected with lakes, forms Little Lithuania or the south-east angle of ducal Prussia.* The land in the interior of Courland is strong and rich;[d] the same kind of soil, the same succession of plains, hills and innumerable lakes, the same transition from sand to clay and from clay to argil, are observable in Pomerania, Brandenburg, Lower Saxony and partly in Denmark.[e] These Sarmatian and Germano-Cimbrian plains seem to rest on a foundation of granite, detached peaks of that rock rise in some places to the surface of the ground. Blocks of granite, quartzose pudding stones and crystals are scattered in many districts; amber, petrifactions, agates and madrepores are generally found at no great distance from them. The circular cavities near Birza, those in Lithuania, and the one that serves as a basin for the lake of Arend in Brandenburg have been formed in the same way.[f] That fact taken in connexion with the particular figure of the lakes, indicates an origin common to them all. Floating islands are not uncommon, the Poles call them the *plicæ* of the lakes, they consist indeed of the tissues of roots and plants attached in a manner not unlike the plica of the hair,[g] and some appear and disappear regularly at certain seasons.

Cavities.

Division of the waters.

The marshy plains on the east and south of the Baltic reach beyond the line which marks the separation of the waters between the different seas. That boundary is not, as M. Buach imagines, a range of hills, it is formed on the contrary by a continuation of lakes and marshes. The same appearance extends throughout Polesia and the great.

[b] Guettard, Mémoires de l'Academie des Sciences, 1762.

[c] Alex. Guagnini, p. 45. vol. I. of the Script. Rer. Pol. by Pistorius.

[d] Busching, Geog. t. I. part II. p. 283. The author visited the country.

[e] D. Scetzen. See the quotation in the Mineralogical Magazine of M. Hof. Tom. I. article IV. p. 404.

[f] Merian, Topograph. Brandenb. p. 21.

[g] Rzaczinski, Hist. Nat. p. 161.

er part of White and Black Russia, or the waiwodats of Novgrodeck, Minsk and Polock. According to a popular tradition, the marshy countries formed in ancient times a little Mediterranean on the east of Poland, the south of Lithuania, and the north of Volhynia; it is affirmed indeed that the waters were drained by a king of Kiow, but there are no hills, which could serve as a dike for such a sea.[h] It may be remarked that the great rivers in Poland, although they flow towards two different seas, communicate with each other after heavy rains by means of their feeders, and inundate the country. Canals may be easily cut between all the tributary streams from Wlodawa in Poland to Sluck in Russia; but as barriers cannot be raised against the sand, these communications are blocked almost as soon as they are formed. The Priepetz, a feeder of the Dnieper, joins the Bug and the Niemen in spring and in autumn; Polesia is then inundated or changed into a lake.

Rivers and Streams.

The heights, which separate the chalky lands of Volhynia from the rich plains of Podolia, form a chain or lofty ridge near Lemberg. The Bog, as we have already mentioned, takes its source in the south of these hills, and the Dneister rises on the same ridge at the base of the Carpathians. Both the rivers flow to the Euxine, their steep banks are lined with soft calcareous rocks, that contain gypsum, and support a thick layer of rich and dark mould.[i]

The *Bug*, which is apt to be confounded with the Bog, rises on the northern side of the same hills; according to the Poles, it loses its name when it joins the Narew; the last river flows from the plains of Lithuania, and is believed by the common people to be fatal to water snakes.[j] The Bug, it must be admitted, is not so large as the Narew, but its name is retained on the maps beyond their confluence at Sierock. The *Vistula* descends from the mountains of Silesia, is enlarged by the Bug or the Narew, the Pilica and

[h] Rzaczinski, p. 464.

[i] Zlewiski's notes, see Guettard, p. 298, 306.

[j] Dlugossi, lib. I. p. 18. Cromer, p. 61.

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most of the other rivers in Great and Little Poland. The San, one of its feeders, was supposed to rise near the roots of an immense oak, that covered with its thick foliage the sources of the Dneister. The tradition is less inapplicable to the Stry, which might perhaps have been confounded with the Dneister, or considered its principal source.[k] The Wartha, like the Vistula, flows in a broad channel, and inundates the neighbouring fields; though not deep, it has the appearance of a large river, and its streams serve to enlarge the Oder.

The Polish rivers, after they overflow their banks, leave a rich deposit, by which the inundated lands are fertilized. The Niemen that limits the kingdom of Poland, is the only one not subject to inundations, uprooted trees are never carried down its course, the banks are never undermined by its waters.[l]

Climate of Upper Poland.

The climate of Poland Proper is necessarily modified by its position. The country, it must be recollected, is situated between two cold regions; it is surrounded on the east and the north by the central ridge of Russia, and on the south by the Carpathian mountains, which are exposed to an almost perpetual winter. The influence of the last climate extends to all the neighbouring regions; thus the thermometer has descended at Lemberg and Cracow to—20° and 22° of Reaumur.[m] All the corn in the neighbourhood of Cracow was blasted in the year 1654, by a severe frost that commenced on the day of Pentecost.[n] The crops in the districts at the base of the Carpathians are often destroyed by storms of hail.[o]

Climate of the plains.

The east wind or the coldest of any in the rest of Poland, arrives on the plains from the Russian ridge and the Uralian mountains. The north wind is milder and more humid,[p] but the west wind, which continues a great

[k] Dlugossi, p. 17. [l] Dlugossi, p. 21.

[m] Thirteen and seventeen degrees below zero of Fahrenheit.

[n] Whitsunday.

[o] Rzaczinsky, p. 382, 708, &c.

[p] Conrad, Diss. de effect. frigor. Dantzick, 1670. Erndtel, Warsavia physice illustrata.

part of the year, is the harbinger of dense and unwholesome mists in the neighbourhood of Warsaw. The south wind passes above the Carpathians, and adds to the intensity of the cold.

It has been proved by a number of thermometrical observations that the Polish winter is not milder than that of central Sweden, although the difference in the latitude is equal to ten degrees.[q] The maximum of cold at Warsaw varied in a period of fourteen years from—8° to 25° of Reaumur, and the mean term was found to be equal to—17$\frac{6}{7}$°.[r] The greatest variations observed in a period of seventeen years at Upsal, were from—11° or 12° to 23°, and the mean term was—18$\frac{1}{2}$°. But it ought to be remarked that there were no remarkable winters in the Swedish as in the Polish series; for, with the exception of 1791, in which the maximum was only equal to 8$\frac{1}{2}$°, it amounted every other year to at least 12°.[s]

Seasons of vegetation.

The time of vegetation may serve, as well as the thermometer, to indicate the temperature. The nut tree and the daphne mezereum begin to flower about the vernal equinox or about five weeks later than at Paris. The white poplars commence in March, but the juniper, the willow, the alder, the birch and the common ash are nearly a month later. The beech, the black elder, the barberry and the wild pear are never in blossom before May. Lint, asparagus, the walnut tree, the common elder and the briar flourish in June, and the *datura stramonia* in the month of July.[t]

Extreme variations.

The climate of Poland is very variable. Dlugossi informs us that in one year all the rivers were blocked from the month of October to the vernal equinox; in another season the Baltic was frozen, and many travelled on the ice from Dantzick to Lubek.[u] The weather is so mild in some

[q] Voyage de deux Français, t. IV. p. 40.

[r] Eight degrees below zero of Reaumur are equal to 14° above zero of Fahrenheit;—25° of R. to—24$\frac{1}{4}$° of F. and—17$\frac{6}{7}$° R. to—8$\frac{1}{4}$° F.

[s] Twelve degrees below zero R. are equal + 5° F.

[t] Erndtel, viridarium Warsaviense.

[u] Rzaczinsky, tract. VI. Sec. I. art. VI.

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seasons, that the fields are clad with a new vegetation. The rose bushes near Dantzick were covered a second time with flowers, about the end of October, 1568. The same phenomenon happened again in the month of December, 1588, and such was the mildness of winter in 1659, that swarms of bees issued from the hives. These facts may be contrasted with others relative to Lithuania, which is not politically connected with Poland. The historian of Lithuania enters into curious details concerning the winters of 1414 and 1492.[v] The fields in a country under the fifty-fifth parallel were covered with flowers in the month of January; the corn rose from the ground, its spikes were formed, and the music of birds re-echoed in the groves. But the month of March was accompanied with a sudden and intense frost; in one day all the riches of the early summer were annihilated; the second harvest was not abundant, exhausted nature afforded but a scanty supply.

Meteors.

Globes of fire, parhelions, falling stars, aurora borealis and other phosphoric or electrical phenomena are frequently observed in Poland. It may be sufficient to cite, among others mentioned by the Polish writers, that fiery globe which seemed to detach itself from the body of the moon.[x] It appears from the obscure narrative, that King Uladislas Jagellon and his suite lost their way in a champaign country, and, like M. de Saussure in our own time, were enveloped in an electrical cloud.[y]

Mists.

The air of Poland is in general humid and cold from the impure exhalations that rise from dark forests and the surface of vast marshes.[z] Thus, although the climate is salutary to the natives, it is dangerous to foreigners.[a] But the insalubrity of a cold and moist atmosphere is much diminished by the violent winds that circulate freely in

[v] Kwialowicz, Hist. Lithuan. t. II. p. 6.
[x] Tylkowski, Physica curiosa, p. 9.
[y] Reinzer, Meteorology, cited by Rzaczinski.
[z] Starowolski, Polonia, p. 98.

these immense plains, and are so impetuous that they form sandy hills, and cover sometimes with sand whole farms near the shores of the Baltic.

Water.

The nature of the atmosphere and the soil enables us to account for the rapid corruption that takes place in the running and stagnant waters in different parts of Poland. The streams of the Dneister and the Vistula are often of a red colour, the lakes are occasionally covered with a green substance, and goitres are supposed to be produced from drinking the water in many springs on the Carpathians.

Minerals.

Few minerals are found in that large and sandy plain, which forms the northern and central portion of Poland. The land, as in all the northern countries on our globe, is incrusted with a ferruginous deposit, and every marsh and every meadow contain iron in a greater or less proportion. Marine petrifactions are common in many districts, and that enigmatical substance, which the learned call *succinum*, and the vulgar yellow amber, is not rare; large pieces are collected at Chelm and other places at a great distance from the sea.[a] It is remarkable that no saline substances, with the exception of nitre, have been observed in these regions, while an immense layer of fossil salt extends along the Carpathian mountains, which, as shall be afterwards seen in our account of Bochnia and Wieliczka, might afford a sufficient quantity of salt for the consumption of all the countries on the earth. One part of Poland, the portion between the Vistula and the Pilica, abounds in mineral and metallic substances, that were first wrought under the direction of M. Carosi, the engineer appointed by the unfortunate king Stanislas Leczinski.

Mines of Upper Poland.

Olkusz, a town on the north-west of Cracow, continued to flourish as long as the neighbouring mines were worked, its streets are now deserted, and its trade is ruined. The strata succeed each other in the following order; marl, breche, slate, lead mixed with silver, and a small portion of iron, calamine and limestone. It is proved by the

[a] Guettard, Acad. des Sciences, 1762, p. 262.

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records of 1655, that the royal tithe on these mines amounted to 1225 marks of silver, and 1514 hundredweights of lead; now as the tithes were not rigidly exacted, the total produce, it may be allowed, was greater than ten times that quantity. It appears from the lowest valuations, that the ore extracted from the mines must have been worth 476,773 florins, which were then equal to 1,907,100 florins of the present day. Government has frequently deliberated on the best method of renewing the works, indeed it seldom happens that a mine which was so profitable has been so long neglected.[b] A mine of calamine is at present worked at *Ligots*, and the marble in the neighbourhood of Czarnowa is impregnated with lead. A remarkable combination has been observed in several places, it consists of white foliated lead mixed and apparently fused with sand.[c] The proportion of lead in the ore is as fifty-four to a hundred. The iron mines are the most common of any in Poland, those at *Drzevica* yielded every week about 90 hundredweights of ore, which was imbedded in sandstone.[d] The neighbourhood of Konskie, and many parts of the country are rich in alluvial iron. The largest works have been erected at Suchcniow, Jedrow and Samsenow. The iron at Brin near Wochoc is probably better than any other in Poland, but a small portion of copper is left in it, a defect that arises from an imperfect process of smelting. It is said that a large piece of native iron was found at *Miedziana Gora*;[e] it is certain, however, that iron pyrites, blue copper, malachites and lead mixed with silver, have been collected near the same place. The last substance predominates, and the ancient authors evidently allude to it, when they inform us that the bishops of Cracovia loved the town of Slawkow better than their other possessions, because of its famous silver mines.[f] Cranow and Novagora are mentioned among the other places in which the same substance was obtained.

[b] Carosi, t. II. p. 186. [c] Idem, ibid. p. 86.
[d] Idem, ibid. p. 25, 33. [e] Idem, t. I. p. 22.
[f] Starovolski, Polon. p. 20. Cromer, Polon. Elzev. p. 52.

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The metals are not the only riches of the country, good mill stones are obtained at *Mniow*, and fine marble in different districts. A perpendicular vein of copper pyrites, about three yards in breadth, crosses a marble hill not far from *Chencyn*. Lapis-lazuli is extracted from the vein, and the Polish writers affirm that the Palatine Bidzinski offered a table made of that precious stone, to Pope Innocent the Ninth.[g] Small pieces of green copper are found in the marble of Miedzianka, and the fields near Ostrowice and Gorna-Wola are covered with an efflorescence of vitriol and alum.[h] The country is of the alluvial formation, the minerals are composed of many substances confusedly joined together, and small fragments of different ores are scattered in the rocks. Quarries.

The soil in the kingdom of Poland is not as rich as in the Ukraine, and it is even less fruitful in many places, than Lithuania; still every sort of grain from wheat to millet, succeeds in the sandy plains and light mould. The country becomes more fertile as we ascend the Vistula, on the south of the Pilica towards Sendomir and Cracow, but the difficulty and costs of exportation are increased. The lands of the nobles are in general too extensive to be carefully cultivated, and many proprietors are not provided with a sufficient number of labourers. The peasants are free, and find it more profitable to settle on the domains of the crown, where more than a third of the population are at present concentrated. The Jews or the wealthiest men in the country, are by law prevented from purchasing heritable property; for that reason the price of land is very low, but the landowners cannot obtain the funds necessary to improve their estates without paying an exorbitant interest.[i] A great part of Masovia consists of large forests, and there is no scarcity of timber in most provinces. The sandy plains are covered with every variety of the pine; the fir and the beech thrive on the high Agriculture. Forests.

[g] Rzaczinski, Histoire Naturelle, p. 65. [h] Carosi, t. I. pp. 75, 79, &c.
[i] Jacob's Report on the Corn Laws.

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Bees. If we may believe the ancient Polish writers, bees were so common in their time, that old trees were not only filled with these insects, but the ground was covered with their cells. They prefer apparently the trunks of the fir, the *pinus picea*, the lime and the oak to every other tree.[m] Modern authors make mention of the large vats in which the ancient Poles kept hydromel, their favourite drink. So great were the dimensions of these vats, that men, it is said, have been sometimes drowned in them. The Danes, it appears from the Scandinavian historians, were equally fond of hydromel. According to Herodotus and other Greek authors, several countries on the north of the Danube were uninhabitable, in other words, the people were driven from them by innumerable swarms of bees.[n]

Fish. The lakes and rivers are well supplied with fish, and large marshes or fish ponds, like those in Gallicia, have been dug by the inhabitants of Upper Poland.[o] The different kinds that frequent the lakes are the pike, the perch, the eel, the small turbot and the bream. Many carps are bred in the ponds, and trout, barbel, lampreys, salmon, sturgeon and other varieties are found in the rivers.[p]

Birds. The most common birds are the eagle, the falcon, the swan, the crane, the partridge, the quail and the starling;

[k] Martin Cromer. See the Collection of Pistorius, p. 80.
[l] Hassel, Geography of Weymar, XI. p. 198.
[m] Cromer, Polonia, Elzev. p. 50. Michov. Sarmat. lib. I. c. II.
[n] Herodotus, book V. ch. X. Ælian, book XVII. c. 35.
[o] Rzatzinsky, p. 162. Starovolski, p. 36.
[p] Cromer, Polonia, Elz. pp. 66, 67.

the thrush is comparatively rare. The *sniegula* or snow hen is seen in winter, the Poles consider it a great delicacy, and it is most plentiful in the neighbourhood of Lowicz.[q]

Quadrupeds.

The oxen in Poland are inferior to those in Podolia and the Ukraine. The horses, though not large, are well made, swift and strong. Sheep abound in the country, but the numerous flocks are covered with coarse wool.

Wild animals find shelter in the immense forests of Poland and Lithuania. The stag is now rare, but there are many wild boars, foxes, squirrels, hares, rabbits and beavers. The most destructive of any are the wolf and the glutton.

The art of training the bear, is not an uncommon trade in Poland and Lithuania; the country people lead them from one place to another, and their tricks serve to amuse the populace. The bear is rendered docile and tractable by severe treatment; when taken very young, it may be taught to carry different articles to its master, but its natural ferocity appears in old age, and it is never safe to keep one for any length of time.

On the existence of the Urus.

The Polish authors entertain different opinions concerning the existence of a wild animal, a kind of bull, which is called the *urus* or the *bison*. Some writers consider the two terms synonymous, others apply them to two distinct species, and it is maintained that the common ox is sprung from the one or the other.[r] The information collected by travellers and Polish writers on the subject, is vague and inaccurate.

There exists or there has existed in the forest of Wyskitca in Masovia, a race of wild bulls, nearly of the same form and size as the domestic animal, but all of them are distinguished by their black colour and a white line that

q Cromer, Polonia, p. 74.

r Pallas, Mémoire sur l'urus, in the Novi Comment. Petropol. Dictionnaire des Sciences Naturelles, article, *Bœuf*, &c.

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extends along the back. They copulate with the ordinary cow, but no fruit has hitherto resulted from their union. *Tur*, an ancient Gothic word, that signifies a bull, is the name by which the inhabitants call them, and it corresponds in the modern Polish with *urus* or *aurochs*. A different account is given of an animal, which is supposed to exist or to have existed in eastern Prussia, Lithuania and Podolia. It is much larger and stronger than the bull, it has a protuberance on the back or between the shoulders, and a long and pendulous main round the neck. Its head, though small in proportion to the rest of the body, is armed with long horns, which form a sort of crescent, that varies from two to four cubits. The Poles and the other Slavonic nations call it the *zubr*, *zumbro* or *zambro*, a word that now signifies a bison. If we judge, however, from the descriptions of the animal, it appears to be the same as the one that the Germans in the time of Cæsar called the *ur-ochs*, *aur-ochs* or primitive ox; for *ur*, *aur* or *aar* means in the Gothic languages, origin, commencement or remotest antiquity. *Wissen* or the Eddaic term for the bison, is probably derived from *bisse* or *wisse*, a substantive that denotes the rage to which the domestic bull is subject.* It is yet to be determined if the real urus was styled the bison, or if the first term was employed to designate a herd of ordinary oxen that had passed from the domestic to the wild state, and, lastly, if the accounts of the great size of the urus are not wholly fabulous.

Inaccuracy of names.

Cæsar, Pliny, Seneca and other Roman writers distinguish the bison from the urus, and characterise the first by its main, and the second by its large horns. The only facts, that cannot be denied, are the existence of the urus in Germany in the time of Cæsar, and in Dacia during the reign of Trajan, the great length of its horns, which were imported into Greece and sold in that country at an early

* See the following passages in the Scriptores rerum Polonicarum, by Pistorius. Erasmus Stella, lib. I. in fine; Martin Cromer, tom. I. p. 84; Herberstein, t. I. p. 159. See also *Vigénère*, fol. XXIII. The animal described by Coxe and other modern travellers is the degenerate urus.

period,[t] and the antiquity of the Slavonic word *Zumbro*.[u]

Poles.

The Poles are a strong, active and well-made people; their physiognomy is frank and prepossessing; light and chesnut hair are very common, and that circumstance, as well as the language of the country, may prove the frequent mixture of the Gothic and Slavonic race. Mustachios are worn by men of every rank, to shave the head is as general a practice, and a small tuft of hair, which is left on the crown, gives the people a foreign or rather an Asiatic appearance. The fair sex are celebrated in the north for their beauty, they surpass the Russian women in symmetry of form, and the Germans in the fineness of their complexion. They are better educated, more animated and agreeable in their manners than the women of Russia.

Diseases.

Although the natural strength of the Poles is increased by the hardy way in which they are brought up, they are exposed to a greater number of diseases than their neighbours. The maladies peculiar to the country are attributed to the quality of the air, which is rendered unwholesome by large and numerous marshes, to the want of good water, and the uncleanly habits of the great majority of the people. Some malignant diseases are not unfrequent in Poland, though unknown in Russia. The last country is situated under a higher parallel, but the maladies that are common to the two nations, are more contagious and dangerous in Poland.

Small-pox.

Endemic diseases are of rare occurrence, the small-pox is the most fatal of any. The cause may be owing to improper treatment, bad diet and the habitual negligence of the people. The Polish peasants are as little protected against the contagion of the most dangerous variolæ, as the Turks are against the plague. The healthy and the diseased are crowded together in narrow hovels; the fetid vapours which they exhale, and the excessive

[t] Herodotus, VII. chap. CXXVI.

[u] Inscription of an epigram of Addæus, in the Analecta of Brunck, II. p. 241, No. 2.

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heat of the apartment, add to the malignity of the evil. It is calculated that the mortality is in the proportion of six or seven to ten; such as survive are often frightfully disfigured. It is thus easy to explain why there are more blind people in Poland than in any other European country.

Syphilis.

Syphilis is very common, the proportion in the large towns is as six to ten. "Out of a hundred recruits that were examined," says Dr. Lafontaine, "eighty were attacked with it."[x] Men wanting the nose may be seen in every Polish village.

The diseases which we have enumerated are known in other European states, but plica is confined to the country, and it ought for that reason to be more fully mentioned.

Plica.

Plica is endemical in Poland and in some adjacent provinces. As the peccant matter expands, it passes into the hair, and binds it so closely together that it cannot be separated; it is not always confined to that part of the body, but appears often in the nails of the hands and feet. The disease spares neither age nor sex; it is observed in infants at the time of their birth, it attacks strangers on their arrival in Poland, but the peasants, the poor and the Jews are perhaps more exposed to it than the rest of the inhabitants. Some individuals are never afflicted with it, while others are never free from it at stated times. It has been shown by repeated observations, that plica does not depend on the colour of the hair, or on any particular temperament. The same disease is contagious, it is communicated by dress, by sexual intercourse and by nurses to children. It proves fatal to some of the lower animals, to sheep and such as are covered with long hair.

Unknown cause.

Plica is occasioned by a substance of which the nature is at present unknown, and which is probably as difficult to determine as the one that produces scurvy or syphilis. The matter is viscous and acrid, it is formed in the lymph, and deposited on the hair and nails. Cleanliness is no se-

[x] Dissertations Médicales sur la Pologne.

curity against it, and the development of the disease is neither promoted nor retarded by the state of the atmosphere, the quality of the water, or a particular diet. BOOK CXIII.

It has been shown by a recent experiment of M. Schultes, that the matter contains a portion of uric acid, a discovery that may perhaps lead to a solution of the enigma.

But the epidemical character of the Polish plague is not likely to be soon explained. It may be asked why plica is almost exclusively the scourge of the Poles; it cannot be imputed to their diet, for it is favourable to health, and their occupations and manner of life enable them to bear great fatigue, and to resist many privations.

The acrid matter passes into the hair when it is separated from the blood, and the disease then comes to a crisis. The patient may suffer much before its development, but plica is not accompanied in some instances with any pain. If the art of the physician is unavailing, if nature does not co-operate in removing the virus by the hair and the nails, or if it enters the noble parts of the body, the brain, the stomach or the lungs, it engenders fatal diseases. It may appear on the eyes, and occasion cataract, or it may become corrosive, and penetrate into the bones and marrow; excruciating agony is then the inevitable consequence, and death only can put an end to the sufferings of the patient. As soon as the crisis arrives, and the matter is formed on the hair or nails, every dangerous symptom disappears, and the individual is gradually restored to health. If a relapse follows, it may be concluded that the virus has not been expelled from the blood. When the quantity of matter is so great that the hair cannot contain it, the plicæ burst, and the matter is diffused over every part of the head. The cure must be effected by nature, after the folds are completely formed, they fall of their own accord, or are detached by a new growth of hair. The duration of the complaint varies, it is seldom cured in a short time, it continues generally from one to four months, and lasts sometimes longer than a year. Effects of the disease.

The time and the country in which the disease origin- Origin of plica.

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ated, cannot be determined. According to some Polish writers, it was introduced after an incursion of the Tartars, and was unknown in Poland before the year 1387. It is certain, however, that the tradition is mixed with many absurd fables, and even on the supposition that the opinion is well founded, it ought to be explained why plica was not communicated to the Russians by the Tartars, for the latter ruled over the greater portion of their empire during several centuries. The Russians who reside near the Polish frontiers, are seldom liable to it, yet the climate is the same, the diet and habits of the people are not different. The frequent use of the vapour bath in Russia, may perhaps act as a preservative against a disease, which, if not exclusively confined to the Sarmatian climate and the Slavonic race, is nowhere as prevalent or fatal as in Poland.

Departments.

The kingdom of Poland is at present divided into eight departments, their ancient names and the title of *waiwodats* are still retained; it may therefore be right to adhere to them in the following table.

	Square leagues.	Population of 1819.
1. Cracovia (Cracow)	587	445,000
2. Sendomir	784	432,000
3. Kalisch	892	512,000
4. Lublin	881	490,000
5. Plock (Plotsk)	805	364,000
6. Masovia	890	481,000
7. Podlachia	633	286,000
8. Augustowo	894	335,000

Warsaw.

Warsaw or, as it is styled by the Poles, *Warszawa* contains 120,000 inhabitants, and more than 9000 houses. The population is rapidly increasing, but although the town has been much embellished, too many ancient buildings, narrow streets, and wooden houses covered with straw, are suffered to remain. The capital is a place of great antiquity, it is mentioned by Barbaro, but it was little known before the union of Poland and Lithuania.

The town then rose into importance, the warlike and independent inhabitants of both states repaired to it, although both contended for the honour of giving a capital to the common country. Sigismond III. was the first king who fixed his court there, his successors made it their residence, and to conciliate the Lithuanians, the diet was transferred to it in 1566. Warsaw was taken in 1655 by the Swedes, who collected the immense booty that they had obtained in Poland. It was retaken by the Poles in the following year, and the quarter which is now called the city, then made up the whole of the town. The different suburbs, of which the most remarkable are the *Nowy-Swiat* or new town, Alexandria, Krakow and Praga on the other side of the Vistula, form at present the finest part of Warsaw. The city consists of a long and narrow street, in which the others terminate; but in the suburbs, the streets are spacious and clean, they are adorned in many places with palaces, churches and monasteries, that were built in the time of the Saxon kings. A traveller maintains that the greater part of the town is dirty, ill paved and never lighted at night.[y] The Polish nobles, accustomed to ride in carriages or on horseback, seldom thought of humble pedestrians or of the evils to which they submitted; but these defects have been remedied by the present government. The suburbs of Praga may be considered a town, for its population amounted to 6690 souls in the year 1782; the number was reduced after the visit of the barbarian Souwarow in 1795, to 3082. Dead bodies were carried down the Vistula to Prussia; and Warsaw dismantled by the plunderers, became a provincial town. The ancient capital, which was peopled in 1782 by 89,450 inhabitants, contained in 1797 not more than 66,572. A Prussian author supposes that the population including the garrison, was equal in 1804 to 74,900 individuals.[z] The place was stripped of its finest ornaments during these sad vicissitudes. The paintings collected by the last king of Po-

Quarters of the town.

Massacre at Praga.

[y] Fortia de Piles, t. V. p. 22.

[z] Muller's Geography, vol. II. p. 373.

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land, are now in Russia, a library consisting of more than 45,000 volumes, was purchased by the emperor Alexander, and presented by him to the Volhynian gymnasium.

Library of Zaluski.

The famous library of the Zaluski, which belonged to the republick, and contained exclusively of duplicates, 200,000 volumes, was sent to Petersburg. The care of packing it was committed to the Cossacks, who threw many of the works into the street, burnt others, divided the rest into confused heaps, and put them into old chests or insecure boxes. The cargo was conveyed in sledges to Petersburg, but it often happened in the course of the journey, that a case gave way or sprang open from the manner in which the goods had been packed; on these occasions a soldier picked up the books, and pressed them down with the point of his sabre.[a] Warsaw was improved during the paternal reign of Alexander the First; the new university was liberally endowed by that prince, who made the town the residence of a viceroy and a primate.

Public buildings.

The bronze statue of Sigismond the Third is situated near the gate of Cracow, a marble column twenty-six feet in height serves as a base for the figure, which was erected in memory of Sigismond by Uladislas the Fourth, during the years 1643 and 1644. The *Zameck* or royal castle is at no great distance from the last monument, it was built on an eminence in the suburbs of Cracow by Sigismond the Third. One part of that large but simple edifice served as a hall for the diet, another part has been changed into an astronomical observatory. The gardens near the Saxon and the Krasinski palaces are the only public walks in the town; but the wealthy feel little inconvenience on that account, for the shady walks of Ujazdew in the neighbourhood, may vie with the *Prater* of Vienna. The gardens of Lazienki and the medicinal baths are much frequented, and many country houses are built near them. The island of *Kespa-Saska* is a dependence of the town, and the greater part of it is covered with

Neighbourhood of Warsaw.

[a] Tableau de la Pologne, p. 128. Notes communicated by the Poles.

fruit trees. *Wilanow*, which is not more than four miles from Warsaw, is visited by strangers, it belongs to the princess Lubomirska, and was formerly the residence of the great Sobieski. The commerce of the capital consists chiefly in the produce of the country; the manufactures are cloth, linen, carpets, stockings and hats; but carriages and harness are the only articles of good workmanship.

Other towns in Masovia.

The other towns in Masovia are insignificant. Czersk, a long time the residence of the Masovian dukes, contains only four hundred inhabitants, and although Brzesc, the capital of Cujavia, still retains its ancient fortifications, it is not peopled by more than nine hundred individuals. *Lowicz* and *Kuttno* are the towns next in importance to Warsaw; the first was the metropolis of an ancient principality, its population amounts to 3380 souls; the second boasts of 2600 inhabitants, but more than the half of them are Jews. The castle of *Nieborow* near *Sochaczew*, is more admired than any other in the department, it belongs to the Radzivills; a library of 20,000 volumes, and the delightful retreat of Arcadia, evince the taste of the proprietors.

Waiwodat of Kalisch.

The town of Kalisch in the *waiwodat* of the same name, is well built, the streets are paved, the most of them are broad, and the avenues that lead to the gates, are shaded with trees. Its population, which is not less than 8000 souls, its military school and its cloth and linen manufactories render it one of the most important places in the kingdom. The Prosna winds through a rich and picturesque valley, and waters the walls of Kalisch. Several small manufacturing towns are situated in the country between the Prosna and the Warta. *Piesern* or *Pizdry* is peopled by two thousand inhabitants, *Petrikow* or *Petrikau* is the seat of two tribunals, and *Wolborz* is the residence of the bishop of Cujavia. The fortified convent of *Czenstochowa* is famous from the siege that it sustained, and from a miraculous image of the holy Virgin, an image that is every year worshipped by 40,000 pilgrims. The

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convent is built on the *Jasno-Gora* or the Klarenberg, the old and new towns that surround it, contain a population of 3000 individuals.

Waiwodats of Cracow and Sendomir.

The country becomes mountainous in the waiwodat of Cracow, and the ridge between the Pilica and the Vistula is composed of sandstone or calcareous rocks; the mines in that part of Poland have been already mentioned. The first heights are observed at Bendzin towards Silesia, [b] and at Szydlowice in the direction of Warsaw. [c] The vallies that extend towards the Vistula, particularly those watered by the Nida, yield rich harvests, and the lands in the neighbourhood of Pinczow and Busco, which are set apart for the culture of anise, are as fruitful as any in the kingdom. [d] But the country on both sides of the road from Konskie to Malogosc and onwards to Olkusz, exhibits the appearance of poverty and want. The range consists of a number of hills intersected by vallies, for that reason perhaps, the heights appear to be very steep, but when examined from the top of the Lysa-Gora, it is seen that they form a long ridge flattened at the summit. [e] The Lysa-Gora may be compared to a promontory; it terminates the table land of Little Poland on the north-west of Sendomir, and is chiefly composed of hard sandstone mixed with quartz. The mountain is observed at the distance of more than fifteen leagues, and commands the whole of Upper Poland. Numerous fountains rush from the arid rocks, where a pious multitude from remote regions, often meet in a monastery renowned for its miracles. The sides of the Lysa-Gora are frequently enveloped in clouds, and to that cause are attributed the sudden and heavy rains, which deluge the adjacent lands. [f]

Ridge of Little Poland.

Kielce, *Slakow* and *Zarki*, three mining towns, are the only places worthy of notice in the waiwodat of Cracow.

[b] Zollner's Travel's, vol. I. p. 255.

[c] Carosi's Travels in Poland, vol. I. p. 6. German Edition.

[d] Rzaczinsky, p. 86. Starovolski, p. 28.

[e] Carosi, t. I. p. 227, &c.

[f] Rzaczinski, Tract III. c. II. art. 7. Sarnicki, Chorographia, in voce Mons. Crucis. The Lysa-Gora is often called the Holy Cross.

The palace of the vicar-general, and the school of the mines are situated in the first town, which contains 5000 inhabitants. Sendomir in the waiwodat of the same name, notwithstanding its two thousand seven hundred inhabitants, its fortified castle and its fields rich in wheat, must cede the title of capital to the small town of *Radow*, which is more advantageously situated. The Jews of *Opatow* carried on a lucrative trade in Hungarian wines; and *Rakow*, a decayed burgh, was inhabited by the Socinian sectaries, who were banished in 1643, contrary to law and the faith of treaties.[g]

Waiwodat of Lublin.

The mountains disappear on the other side of the Vistula or in the waiwodat of Lublin, that is watered by the *Wieprz*, and separated from Russia by the Bog. The province abounds in corn, wood and cattle, and although it is not probable, as M. Chawlkowski supposes, that the secale of Lublin changes in time into wheat, it contains a great quantity of flour, and is remarkable for its thin pellicle. Lublin, the second city in the kingdom, is peopled by 10,000 inhabitants; we observe in the town the ruins of the castle of Casimir the Great, the palace of Sobieski, some fine churches and the largest synagogue in Poland. The fairs are frequented by German, Russian, Armenian, Greek and Turkish merchants. *Zamosc*, a very important fortress, is built after the Italian manner with arcades round the houses, but as the fortifications were much extended, the number of habitations and inhabitants has been proportionably diminished. Pulawy on the banks of the Vistula, a place celebrated in poetry, belongs to the Count Czartoriski. The noble architecture of the castle and the church, the temple of the Sibyl, an imitation of an ancient edifice, the splendid library of the proprietors, and the scenery described by Delille, form an agreeable contrast to the vulgar details connected with geography. The castle of Klemenzow, the residence of the Zamoiski, is

Remarkable castles.

[g] Rzaczinski, p. 69.

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situated in the same province, and two monuments of classical taste, the mausoleums of General Orlowski and the poet Kniaznin are not more than three miles from Pulawy. It is natural to admire the good feeling and generosity of nobles, who have used their wealth in promoting the happiness of those around them, but it must not be imagined that isolated palaces surrounded by hamlets and mean cottages, are any proof of general prosperity.

Rubieszow and *Tomassew*, two frontier towns, are enriched by their commerce in Hungarian wines, and their trade in hydromel.

Waiwodat of Podlachia.

The numerous lakes, marshes and forests, which separate the Bug and the Wieprz in the districts of Biala and Badzyn, form part of the romantic and fruitful waiwodat of Podlachia. Siedlec, the chief town, is noted for its white bread and ardent spirits, the former is perhaps as good as the bread in other countries, the latter is not quite so bad as the strong drink in the rest of Poland.

Waiwodat of Plock.

The waiwodat of Plock corresponds with the Prussian province of the same name, and many curious details concerning it are contained in the statistical tables published by authority of the Prussian government. Thus, the extent of the land in cultivation is equal to 127,984 *hufens*, and the forests, heaths, marshes and lakes make up 102,386.[h] The western districts are covered with forests of lofty oaks, but the ordinary return of secale and barley throughout the department, is not more than three to one. Plock, which contains seven or eight thousand inhabitants, is surrounded by orchards, and the Vistula flows beneath its walls. The town is enlivened by its trade, the fishermen cast their nets in quest of salmon, and many boats laden with the crops of Poland, sail down the river.[i] A Polish theatre and public gardens are the places of amusement. An official journal has of late years been established, and Plock is likely to become from its position,

Towns, &c.

[h] The Polish hufe or hide is nearly equal to thirty acres.

[i] Starovolksi, p. 62. Muller, t. II. p. 377.

the first commercial town in the kingdom. The different places on the Narew and the Bug are *Modlyn*, an important fortress, *Ostrolenka* near the desert of the same name, which is an immense heath partly covered with natural woods, and *Pultusk*, that is almost encompassed by the Narew; the last town contains 2500 inhabitants, its lofty castle stands on the summit of a rock, and commands the adjacent plain. The river *Orzik* in the district of Mlava, flows a mile and a half in a subterranean channel.

Waiwodat of Augustowo.

Augustowo, the eighth and last waiwodat, comprehends a small part of Lithuania, now united to the kingdom and formerly to the great dutchy of Warsaw by the high powers that presided over the different divisions of Poland. The province of Bialystock ought perhaps to be added to the Polish crown, or it might be exchanged for the Lithuanian portion, which extends to the north of Augustowo, a small town founded by Sigismond Augustus, of which the population is less than 2000 souls. That narrow headland, if it may be so called, is fruitful and well cultivated, it confines the territory of Prussia on the west, and the course of the Niemen on the east and north. *Suwalki*, a place of four thousand souls, is now the metropolis of the waiwodat; *Novemiasto* and *Kalwary* are the towns next to it in importance. The convent of Wigry and its colossal walls are built on an island in a lake, and ten thousand pilgrims repair every year to the monastery of Seyny.

Surface and Population.

A surface of 6340 square leagues, and a population of 3,700,000 souls, are all that remain of the conquests of Boleslas in Red Russia, of the accessions gained by the union of Lithuania, Volhynia and Kiow under the Jagellons, and the additional territory obtained by the invasions of Moscow, Smolensko, Moldavia, Livonia and Prussia. Thus, countries are conquered by ambitious princes, and lost by their children or grandchildren. The victors become the founders of powerful empires, in the next generation, the people are governed by strangers. Nothing is more unstable than national greatness. The extent of Poland was not less than 38,000 square leagues, and its

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population was greater than fourteen millions in 1772, but Poland is now annihilated, and San Marino is not changed.

Constitution.

The constitution granted by Alexander is representative, it consists of two chambers, the deputies of the one are elected by the nobles and the provincial assemblies; the senate is composed of ten waiwodes, who are appointed during life by the king, ten *castellans* that are nominated by the senate, and the same number of bishops.[k] The power of the monarch is very great, but not incompatible with civil and religious liberty. The privileges of the towns are respected, the condition of the peasantry has been improved, and the execution of the laws is guaranteed, but the Polish laws are complicated and imperfect. The revenues of the crown are estimated at fifty millions of Polish florins, (L.1,291,667) of that sum seven millions are expended on the civil list. The army is wholly national, it is not yet completely organized, and the number of men is limited to 30,000 infantry and 20,000 cavalry.

Republic of Cracow.

The country which makes up the republic of Cracow is equal to ninety-four square leagues, and the population amounts to 100,000. The peasants, formerly protected by the clergy, were not so poor or ignorant as those in the rest of Poland, and additional benefits have been conferred on them by the present government.

Aspect of the country.

The appearance of the country is different; greater labour is bestowed on the roads, the fruitful fields are separated by quickset hedges, and the cottages, though built of clay and the branches of trees, are better whitened without and cleaner within; most of them are shaded by fruit trees.[l] Apples, plums, cherries, chesnuts, almonds and peaches are raised in the neighbourhood of the capital.[m]

Town. Monuments.

Cracow, once the metropolis of Poland, was the place where the ancient kings were crowned and interred. The

[k] A castellan or ancient Polish senator held the first rank in the state after the royal family.

[l] Carosi, t. I. 135. Zollner, t. I. p. 256, 267.

[m] Starovolski, Polonia, p. 18.

cathedral is remarkable for its numerous mausoleums; we may mention the monument of Sobieski, that was repaired by king Stanislas Augustus, and that of bishop Saltyk, in which the prelate is represented on a basso relievo, while the Russians are leading him captive to Siberia. The tomb of saint Stanislas is erected in the middle of the church; two lamps burn day and night near it, and masses are continually said over his ashes. Christian piety tries to perpetuate the glorious name of a true saint, who ventured to reprove a victorious monarch, elated with success and corrupted by debauchery, at a time when his baneful example was imitated by his people. Saint Stanislas Sczepanowski must always be ranked among the great men of Poland; it may be doubted that he restored the dead to life. Boleslas the Bold, in defiance of his miracles, resolved to kill the bishop in his own church; thrice he gave the order to his guard, and thrice they refused to injure so venerable a personage, and to profane so sacred a place. The king himself performed at last the office of executioner, he struck the saint with the hilt of his heavy sword, and stretched him lifeless at the foot of the altar.[n]

Commerce. University.

The population of the town amounts to 26,000 souls; its commerce and manufactures have been long in a state of decay. The university, formerly called the school of the kingdom, though open at present to every Pole, is not attended by many students. The immunities which the inhabitants of Cracow enjoy in all the provinces of ancient Poland, may perhaps be the means of rendering the capital more prosperous.

Tomb of queen Venda.

Two places of some celebrity are situated in the territory of the republic. The tomb of queen Venda may be seen at Mogila, at no great distance from Cracow. That warlike princess refused the homage of all the neighbouring kings. Ritiguer, a German monarch, more amorous or more ambitious than the rest, came at the head of an

[n] Zollner, t. I. p. 326. Dlugossi, lib. III. p. 291, 599.

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army, and offered war or marriage to the royal Amazon. Venda marched boldly to meet the foe, but after the two armies came in sight of each other, the soldiers of Ritiguer refused to fight, alleging that it became them to defend their country, not to interfere in the private concerns of their sovereign. The prince unable to brook his disgrace, or to yield to a woman, laid violent hands on himself, and queen Venda returned in triumph to Cracow. Not many years afterwards, the princess lost all delight in her martial occupations, lived apart from her attendants, and resolved to put an end to her wretched existence. She might have repented of her past conduct, or the real cause might not have been known to historians, but it is stated that Venda, after sacrificing many victims to the gods, threw herself into the Vistula, and terminated her days to the great regret of her subjects. The story is more fully related by the Polish chroniclers, and few events recorded in the history of Poland are so well adapted for poetry.[o]

Baths of Krzeszowice.

No tragical associations are connected with another place in the neighbourhood of Cracow. The burgh of Krzeszowice, in spite of its barbarous name, is visited by the gay and wealthy Poles. A princess erected there a vauxhall and different buildings for the convenience of those who frequented the baths. The adjacent country is remarkable for its picturesque scenery. The Kudowa, which flows through the low grounds, waters verdant meadows and fruitful orchards, and the sandstone rocks on the heights, are cut into a thousand different shapes, which exhibit the image of Gothic castles. The white fir rises near ruins, and the sides of torrents are shaded by willows; but these retreats on the Sarmatian hills are often rendered inaccessible by rain and inundations.[p] The principal springs contain sulphur, magnesia and different neutral salts.[q]

[o] Dlugossi, t. I. p. 55. Kadlubkon, t. II. p. 609. Sarnicki, p. 1051. Florus Polonicus, &c.

[p] Zollner, t. I. p. 260.

[q] Lafontaine, Dissertations, p. 168.

BOOK CXIV.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. Kingdom of Gallicia, or Austrian Poland. Polish Language and Antiquities.

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Names of Galitzia and Lodomiria.

THE Austrian possessions in Poland are officially designated *Galitzia* and *Lodomiria*. The last term is only used in public documents, the first has been changed, and a new source of confusion has thus been introduced by geographers themselves. The name of Gallicia is almost the same as that of the Spanish province Galicia. It may be as well however to consider a more important subject, the origin and history of the inhabitants. Upper Poland and Red Russia formed together the high country of ancient Poland, and the northern part of the Carpathian mountains. These regions were peopled at an early age by the *Carpi*, the *Biessi*, the *Soboci* and other tribes, whose names appear to be Slavonic. The Carpi were the most celebrated of any in the fourth and fifth centuries, and as they were more correctly called Carpathes or, conformably to the Polish pronunciation, *Krapates* or *Chrabates*, it may be concluded that they were the same people, who extended their sway in the sixth century over *Great* or *White Chrobatia*. That mountainous region, for such is the meaning of its name, was the principal country of the Slavonic hordes that inundated the Roman empire. The western Russians, the *Russniacy* of the Polish writers, might have been

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confounded under the vague denomination of Slaves or *Slavini*. It is unnecessary to suppose them a colony of eastern Russians, that arrived about the fourth or fifth century. Their existence, as a distinct nation from the other Slavonians, particularly the Poles, is dated from the year 884, the epoch of the Hungarian migrations, but they must have existed as a people, or formed a mass of inhabitants long before that period. The Hungarians or a number of Finnic tribes left the provinces, which now make up central Russia, invaded first the powerful state of Kiow, and entered from choice or necessity into a treaty with the Russians, by which they agreed to abandon their territory, and to seek a country in a different land. They travelled in peace through the two Russian principalities of Galitz or, according to the Polish orthography, Halicz and *Wlodomir* or *Lodomer;* they remained several weeks in these states, and received hostages and considerable re-enforcements. Guided by the Russian nations, the Hungarians crossed the Carpathian mountains by the forest of *Houos*, and settled in the provinces of *Ungh* and *Beregh*. The position of two Russian principalities may be determined by their march. When Wlodomir, great duke of Kiow, and sovereign of these principalities, made war in 981 against the Leches or Poles, *Przemysl* was the most important place that he gained from the enemy. The Poles, under the command of Boleslas, commenced their conquests by retaking the same town. The history of the frequent wars between the Kiovian Russians, the Poles and Lithuanians, may afford us some information concerning many other places then the capitals of petty states, among others, *Iaroslav*, *Lubaczow*, *Trembowla*, *Leopolis*, *Lwow* or Lemberg; the last town was founded by prince Leo in the year 1200.[a] The extension of the western Russian nation was nearly as great on the side of Poland, as on that of *Red Russia*, Wlodomir in Volyhynia appears to have been the most northern town, it was contiguous to the

Historical dates.

[a] Lemberg is the German name of the town.

frontiers of Black Russia, at that time subject to Lithuania. All the Polish and Hungarian chroniclers agree that Russia or Ruthenia lay to the north of Hungary, from which it was separated by the Carpathian mountains. The name of *Gallisia*, *Galitza* or *Gallea* was well known about the middle of the twelfth century, it is mentioned in the works of Arabian, Byzantine and Icelandic geographers, who flourished in that period. It became gradually of more general application, and was in time confounded with Russia. The same name is used in the treaties of 1412 and 1423, by which the Hungarians ceded the country to the Poles. [b]

Hungarian influence.

The history of these states forms a long and tiresome succession of revolutions, in which the Hungarian kings appeared sometimes as conquerors, at other times as the avengers and restorers of dethroned princes. It may be remarked, without entering into details, that by the cession of 1423, the king of Hungary renounced merely his rights *for the time*, an equivocal phrase that gave rise to fresh contention. But Red Russia, the only part occupied by the Hungarians, did not comprehend that portion of Upper Poland, which is now incorporated with Gallicia.

It is obvious from the constitutional law of Hungary, and from the oath taken by the princes at their coronation, that if any ancient province be reconquered, it must be united to the kingdom; still however, Mary Theresa having obtained Gallicia and Lodomiria in the name of Hungary, governed them as a distinct state. The claims of the diet have remained and are likely to remain ineffectual.

Physical description.

The southern part of Gallicia is mountainous, but the greatest elevations are lower than those in Hungary, none reach to the height of 6000 feet, and few are equal to four thousand. They are more frequently called the Czerna Gora than the Carpathians; indeed the only remarkable summit is that of the *Babia Gora*, from which may be seen a great part of Gallicia, Poland and Silesia. The

[b] Suhm, Memoir on Gallicia and Lodomiria. See the Transactions of the Society at Copenhagen, XI. p. 471.

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Babia is separated from the Tatra mountains in Hungary by a lofty plain; its summit is composed of "primitive foliated sandstone," and is probably higher than 4800 feet, for it is above the zone of the *pinus pumilio*.[c] Some mountains situated on the frontiers are still higher, their summits or peaks are formed of compact limestone or grawacke. The sides of the Babia and of other heights in the country to the south of Cracow, are nearly perpendicular, and large pieces of rock are sometimes detached from them.[d] The most of the mountains in Gallicia are apparently composed of sandstone, but extensive layers of carbonated iron and beds of rock salt may be observed in different directions. The hills are generally formed of argil, and masses of bituminous sandstone are not uncommon on many of them.[e] Meadows and heaths are scattered on the alluvial lands along the vallies of the Dneister and the Sann. A narrow belt of moving sand extends from Cracow to Lemberg, and red resinous pines are the only trees that grow on it.[f] The country from the neighbourhood of Lemberg to Komorno on the west, and to the frontiers of the kingdom on the east, forms an argillaceous ridge abounding in lakes. The heights that crown the ridge, are called the Biecziad mountains.[g]

Hills.

Climate.

Gallicia is exposed from its position to a north-east wind that arrives from the central ridge of Russia, and is often accompanied with excessive cold. The soil is very humid, and the quantity of rain that falls during the year, is much greater than in any of the neighbouring countries. Inflammatory and bilious fevers are not common diseases, but rheumatic and nervous fevers, phthisis, dropsy, syphilis and plica remind the traveller of all the plagues in Poland. The Gallicians and Poles eat the same coarse and unwholesome bread, both drink too freely of ardent spirits, and the

[c] Lettres de M. Schultes. [d] Rzaczinski, Tract III. sec. I. art. 2.
[e] Carte Géologique de Beudant. [f] Zollner's Travels, &c. I. p. 255.
[g] The Biecziad mountains, according to Rzaczinski, commence at Gorlice, and, according to Dlugossi, at Soby.

want of good physicians is severely felt in the two countries. [h]

Productions. Grain.

Grain forms a very important part of the produce, and the whole province, in as much as relates to its culture, may be divided into three almost equal parts. The first is composed of mountains and marshes in which the plough cannot pass; the second is formed by plains of sand that sometimes yield late harvests; and the third is made up of good arable land, in which the ordinary return is as five or six to one. Leguminous plants and almost every kind of grain are cultivated, but the most common crops are wheat, oats and buck-wheat. [i] The best lands are those in the districts to the east of Lemberg, and in some parts of the circle of Belzk. Grain is seldom sown on the sandy or mountainous regions, and its return in that part of the country is never greater in good seasons than three or four to one. The wheat is exported, the oats and buck-wheat are consumed by the people, and the potato, which has been introduced of late years, is now common in the circle of Jaslo. [k] Asparagus, water-melons and other plants grow spontaneously and in abundance. Vineyards were planted in the neighbourhood of Lemberg, but the rigour of the climate, although under the same parallel as Paris, compelled the inhabitants to abandon the culture of the vine. The quantity of tobacco raised annually varies from twenty to thirty thousand quintals. Lint and hemp are generally cultivated, but chiefly in the district of Przemisl; the linen made in the country is coarse, and the demand for it is confined to the province. A plantation of rhubarb near Makrotin contains upwards of 40,000 plants.

Cattle, &c.

There were more than a million of oxen, and nearly 300,000 horses in the country about twenty years ago; but the horses were small and ill kept. The breed, however, has been much improved of late years, and the horses for the Austrian cavalry are mostly imported from Gallicia.

[h] Schultes, Letter XVII. [i] Rzaczinsky, p. 67, 68. [k] Hassel, XI. p. 433.

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Several thousand lakes or ponds well stocked with fish, are situated in different parts of the province; the largest, or those in the district of Lemberg, are not less than a league in length and in breadth, and the revenue derived from some of them has amounted to 60,000 florins.[l]

The iron mines, though not very valuable, have been improved by the Austrian government; it is stated that they yield forty thousand hundredweights of native iron. Copper is wrought at Poschoryta, and lead mixed with silver at Kerlibaba. Marble is found in the circle of Stanislawow, or the ancient Pokutia. The town of Halicz or Galicz was so called from its salt springs, the term has been extended to the whole kingdom, and we are thus perhaps enabled to account for the name of the ancient Halizones. Salt is extracted from twenty-six springs in Gallicia, but fossil salt is much more abundant, and it is worked in the famous mines of *Bochnia* and *Wieliczka*.[m]

Salt lands.

Hills flattened at their summits extend along the northern side of the Carpathian chain throughout its whole extent. The first stratum in these heights consists for the most part of clay, below it is a layer of fine and humid sand, which is succeeded by a bed of sandy marl, the fossil salt is found under the marl, and in some places in the midst of it. The sandy stratum is seen on the surface of the plain from Cracow to Lemberg, and the hills of argil commence at the height of a hundred and fifty or two hundred feet above the level of the Vistula. Fossil salt

[l] Starovolski, p. 36. Opalinski, Pol. defensa. The number of fish ponds in eastern Gallicia is equal to 3859.

[m] The following are the best accounts of the mines. Anonymous paper in the transactions of the Royal Society of London, July 1760. See the German translation with notes in the *Hamburgisches Magazin*, t. IV. article III. p. 275. Schober's Physical Description, &c. Hamburgh Magazin, t. VI. chap. II. p. 75. The author was the director of the mines. Mémoire de Guettard, membre de l'Académie des Sciences, 1763. Observations, &c. by Berniard in the Journal de Physique, 1780. Description, &c. by Hansen, inspector of the mines, published by M. Zollner in the *Berlinisches Magazin*, first year, c. III. p. 54. Lettres de M. Schultes in the *Anciennes et Nouvelles Annales des Voyages*.

or salt streams are observed wherever excavations of moderate depth have been made, and sulphureous and bituminous springs rise near the mines of Bochnia and Wieliczca.

Mines of Bochnia and Wieliczca.

The Polish historians and geographers maintain that the mine of Bochnia was discovered in the year 1351. The merit of the discovery is attributed to Saint Cunegonde, a Hungarian princess, the wife of Boleslas the Fifth. Although the early accounts are mixed with fable, it is probable that Hungarian miners were sent by the queen into Gallicia. [n] But the mine was neglected or imperfectly known before the year 1442, and the works at Bochnia are now less extensive than those of Wieliczca. [o] Moczinsky supposed the produce of both the mines under the Polish government, to be equal to ten millions of Polish florins, and that the expense of working them absorbed nine-tenths of that sum. But, in consequence of the improvements introduced by the Austrians, the net produce is not less at present than two millions of German florins. The mine of Bochnia, says M. Schober, consists of a long subterranean passage, which is 750 feet in breadth from north to south, 10,000 in length from east to west, and not less in some places than 1000 or 1200 in depth. The entrance is surrounded by crystals, the salt extends in the form of veins, it is finer than that at Wieliczka, and the best kind is found at the greatest depths. No part of the mine is damp, alabaster is observed in several places, and the workmen often find pieces of black and decayed wood. The salt is broken into small fragments, and put into barrels.

Details.

Wieliczka is divided into three parts, the St. John, the Old and the New Fields. The town is not only completely undermined, but the works extend on the one side to the distance of 6000 feet from east to west, and on the other to 2000 from south to north. The depth beneath the lowest part of the valley is about 800 feet. Such are the dimensions mentioned by M. Busching, but according

[n] Dlugossi, lib. VII. p. 719. Sarniki, Chronogr. voce Bochnia.
[o] Carosi, Travels, t. I. p. 182.

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to Hansen and Zollner, the length from south to north is equal to 1,100 *lachter*, [p] the breadth from east to west to 400, and the depth is not greater than 123. Ten pits are connected with the mines, but that of *Wodna-Gora* serves as an outlet for the water, which filters from the high ground, no spring flows from any part of the excavations. A winding stair of four hundred and seventy steps was constructed in the mine of *Leszno*, by order of king Augustus III. The cost of the work amounted to 40,000 Polish florins.[q] Travellers descend the pits of *Danielowitz* by means of ropes, and most of them on their arrival at the first mine, are struck with the size and cleanliness of the alleys and vaults. Chapels or altars cut in the salt, and adorned with the image of a saint, or a crucifix, before which a lamp continually burns, are seen in the different passages. The chapel of St. Anthony is more than thirty feet in height, the adjacent chambers are very large, many are filled with barrels of salt, provender for horses is kept in others, and some are converted into stables. There are seldom fewer than twenty or thirty horses in the mines; but the number depends on the quantity of salt that is exported in different seasons. If water passes into the floor or the roof, crystallizations are formed and heaped above each other in thousands; when these places are lighted by many torches, the spectacle is brilliant, but not so dazzling as might be inferred from the descriptions of some ancient travellers. [r]

The air is wholesome, although a nitrous gas is formed, which rises to the roof of the vaults, and is sometimes inflamed by the approach of lamps; it is called *saletra* by the miners, and emits in burning a pale red light. Seven hundred workmen are employed, but none of them pass their lives in the mines, as some credulous writers and travellers affirm. Accidents are not of frequent occurrence, large pillars of salt are left at certain distances

[p] A measure of five feet. [q] Zollner, Voyage, t. I. p. 281.
[r] Carosi, t. I. p. 173.

to support the roofs, but notwithstanding these precautions, part of the works fell in 1745. Fires were occasioned by negligence in 1644 and 1696, a long time elapsed before they were extinguished, and most of the scaffoldings were destroyed. Salt is found in large and shapeless masses in the two first stories, and the workmen may cut blocks of three, four and five hundred cubic feet. Three different kinds of soil and salt are observed. The first is a dark and greyish marl, humid to the touch, and mixed in some places with gypsum. *Ziclona* or green salt is deposited in the stratum, it contains a small portion of marl, a circumstance that accounts for its colour. Several varieties of the same salt may be enumerated, *spisa* is generally used in the country, *lodowaty* or glazed salt is combined with chalk, and *jarka* signifies saline sand. The second kind of soil is an unctuous marl, that abounds in shells, and the third is composed of impure salt, gypsum and pyrites. It is in the *zuber* or last mixture, that the rock salt and crystallizations appear; they assume the form of cubes or rectangular prisms. These deposits rest on a layer of marl and lime, below which is the *orybakowa* or regular stratum of fossil salt, the purest and most compact of any. The beds are alternately succeeded by argil, slate and gypsum; their direction is from west to east, but they incline towards the south, and consequently towards the Carpathian mountains. The upper part of the saline strata resembles a sea from its undulations, while the base or lower part seems to form a perfect level.[s]

Different kinds of salt.

Lemberg, Lwow or Leopol, as the Poles call it, was formerly the capital of Red Russia, and it is at present the metropolis of Gallicia. The place is large, the streets are spacious, well paved and cleanly kept; they form a remarkable contrast with those of the other towns in the country. The public buildings and many private houses add to the imposing appearance of the city, and are likely

Town of Lemberg.

[s] Zollner, p. 292, 296, &c.

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to excite the wonder of travellers accustomed to the mean towns in Poland. The phenomenon may be perhaps attributed to the proximity of Constantinople; at all events, Greeks often found refuge at Leopol during the thirteenth century.[t] There were at one time seventy-two churches in the city and suburbs, but the number was reduced to twenty under the reign of Joseph II., which is still sufficient for a population of 50,000 individuals, among whom are 13,232 Jews, and as many Greeks and Armenians, that frequent synagogues or temples, and participate, like all the Gallicians, in the blessings of religious liberty. The ramparts are now changed into streets or public walks, and Lemberg carries on an advantageous and profitable trade with Russia, Turkey and the other neighbouring countries.

Manner of life.

"You may see," says an able traveller, "a metropolitan, a Greek and Latin bishop, an Armenian pontiff and a great rabbi living together on friendly terms. The utmost harmony prevails, and, if the discipline be relaxed, it is also improved, for many catholic priests abandoning celibacy for the holy bonds of wedlock, are not less respected on account of their wives and numerous offspring, although the same privilege is forbidden to their brethren in other countries. The manes of Joseph II. seem to protect the land, and the fruits of his reign are public liberty and religious toleration."[u]

Polish part of Gallicia.

The rest of Gallicia may be divided into two portions, which in their relation to ethnography and history are wholly distinct. The first of these divisions forms a part

Towns.

of Little Poland, and is inhabited by Poles. *Rzezow* and *Tarnow*, two towns on the plains near the Vistula, are each of them peopled by four or five thousand individuals;

[t] Bladimir (Wlodomir), regent of Galitza, was the friend of the emperor Manuel. Andronicus lived in exile at the court of *Icrosthlabus* (Jaroslaw), another prince of the same country. Cinnam. lib. IV. c. II. lib. V. c. XIV. —XVI. Nicetas, tom. I. p. 68, 69.

[u] Schultes, Lettres dans les Anciennes Annales.

both carry on a trade in linen and different manufactures, and the value of the articles sold or exported annually from Tarnow amounts to 1,200,000 florins. *Podgorza*, a modern town protected by privileges and immunities, lies opposite to Cracow. The wealth of *Andrichow* and *Kenty* is derived from their linen, they are situated at the base of the Babia-Gora. *Biala* is built in the same part of the province, and its cloth is sold throughout Gallicia. The towns on the Carpathians are *New-Sandec*, Gorlice, which is sometimes called Little Dantzic on account of its manufacturing industry, and Krosno, a place of 5000 inhabitants, and the mart of the Hungarian wines. A great quantity of iron is wrought in the mining villages on the vallies watered by the Upper Sann.

That part of Gallicia or of the former Upper Poland is inhabited by two distinct people. The *Mazurakes* or the natives of the plains resemble the other Poles, but the *Gorales* or mountaineers are very different.*

Gorales.

They appear to be a particular people, distinguished from the other Slavonians by their lighter make and more expressive features; but their small eyes and the salient *zygoma* indicate their connexion with the Slavonic race. More lively and robust, more docile and cunning than the Slavonians on the plain, their ancient enmity against them may be repressed, but it is not diminished. The lowlanders of past times let no opportunity escape of harassing the mountaineers, who, irritated or driven to despair, often invaded the plains and laid waste the lands of their oppressors. Their enemies rarely ventured to approach the mountain passes, those who were so bold, seldom or never returned. The incursions have been checked during the Austrian administration, and by the punishment of many Gorales, the rest have been intimidated. Although prohibited from carrying the axe, they still appear with it on their mountains, but it is no longer employed for an unlawful purpose, and every traveller may now visit the

* Schultes.

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country, or reside in it without danger. The axe is a national arm, which the Gorales handle with great dexterity, they can hit any object with it at the distance of forty yards; the same weapon is considered an ornament, the people never lay it aside during their games or the dance.

Manner of life.

The mountaineers return from the plains about the beginning of winter, but they seldom gain enough to provide for their subsistence. It often happens that they are obliged to leave their cottages, and to seek elsewhere for a livelihood, after having passed the summer in tending their flocks on heaths and deserts.

Those who migrate, and the number is not inconsiderable, are more fortunate, they follow the trades of weavers, hucksters and pedlers, and are scattered in every part of the Austrian empire. The hemp and lint raised on the mountains are very coarse, and perhaps not worth the trouble of cultivating, but the indigence of the inhabitants compels them to submit to any sort of labour. The household furniture made by the people is sold on the plains; its cheapness is its only recommendation, but it is doubtful if people willing to purchase it, could be found in any other country than Poland. The wood of which the different articles are made, is every day becoming more rare. The soil is too sterile for the production of wheat; oats, barley and buck wheat succeed, but the culture of the last grain is not well understood by the mountaineers.

Food.

The bread consumed in the country is made of oats, which the people grind in handmills, the coarse flour is mixed with part of the chaff, and a cake without leven and without salt is baked under ashes. The form of the *platski* or cakes is circular, generally about a foot in diameter, and half an inch in thickness. Their coarse bread, potatoes, cabbage, milk, butter and cheese make up all the food of the Gorales. Constant health and great

Longevity.

longevity are the rewards of their frugal diet. M. Schultes saw several persons that had reached their hundredth year; and the same writer observed one individual of a hundred and twelve, labouring his field with as much activity

as a young man of twenty. That extraordinary person married for the third time at the age of a hundred and ten, a year afterwards he had a son, and the chastity of his wife, it is added, was above reproach.

Costume.

The dress of the Gorales is not costly, indeed every man is his own tailor, weaver and shoemaker. Each individual dresses his own leather, and attaches the different pieces in the same shoe with thongs, according to an ancient method, which has been long abolished in civilized countries. The summer dress consists of coarse hempen stockings and a shirt of the same kind, that is worn above a jacket, and bound round the waste with a belt. White stockings made of coarse woollen cloth, and a brown pelisse of the same substance form part of the winter costume. The men weave and full their cloth, which is supposed to be impervious to rain. Thus, the Gorales might be wholly independent of their neighbours, were they not obliged to purchase their hats in the adjoining burgh of Makow.

Rousniak portion of Gallicia.

The eastern part of Gallicia is inhabited by a people of Russian origin. Przemysl and Jaroslav, two towns worthy of notice, were formerly the residence of grand dukes and princes; both are situated on the Sann, and each of them possesses a population of six or seven thousand souls. Przemysl is defended by a strong castle on a rock, Jaroslav is built on a hill, and its principal ornaments are the church of the Panna Maria or Holy Virgin, and the romantic site of the ancient college of the Jesuits. The northern districts are well cultivated, and the great majority of the inhabitants are husbandmen. *Belz*, however, forms an exception, for its trade consists chiefly in potashes. The privileged town of *Brody* on the north-east frontier is peopled by twenty thousand individuals, of whom more than a third are Jews. A great trade is carried on with Russia, the Israelites have endowed a college and a commercial seminary, but their own houses are mean, dirty and ill furnished. *Sambor* and *Drohobitz*, two towns in the south, each of them contain 7000 souls, the people in the

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one are employed in manufacturing and bleaching linen, and if the commerce of the second is improved, it must be attributed to the synagogue. The population of Halicz or the ancient Gallician capital is not equal to 4000, and consists chiefly of Jews belonging to the sect of the Karaites; their ancestors were settled in the country before the 12th century, for the Byzantine writers mention among the allies of the emperor Manuel, the Chalisii that adhered to the Mosaic law.[y] Stanislawow is a place of much greater importance, indeed if we may judge from the plan that has been published, it is likely to become the principal fortress in the province. The flourishing town of Sniatyn is situated in the district between the Pruth and the *Pokutian* heights,[z] its population amounts to six or seven thousand, and it is much frequented on account of its fairs, at which oxen, horses, honey, wax and other articles imported from Moldavia are sold.[a] *Kutty* is partly peopled by a colony of Armenians, who are employed in dressing Morocco leather.

Russini or Rousniaks.

The people in these central and eastern districts, although many of them now speak a dialect made up of the Russian and Polish, are descended from the *Russini* or *Rousniaks,* who were thus denominated by the Poles to distinguish them from the *Roszieni, Moscowali* or Great Russians. Those who inhabit Hungary have been already mentioned, and the following account of their countrymen in Gallicia is taken from the work of a modern traveller. "I was struck with the appearance of the inhabitants, and convinced that they were originally a different horde of the Slavonic race. The Rousniacs are less civilized and less corrupt than the Gallicians; the same people are not so good husbandmen, but more frugal and laborious. The Gallician women never handle the distaff, while they tend their flocks, it is the common occupation of the Rousniaks.

[y] Cinnamus, lib. IV. c. VIII.

[z] *Pokutia, land of penitence, of exile,* according to Sarnicki, Chorog. Polon. But the etymology is refuted by the fertility of the country.

[a] Staravolski, p. 40.

The latter profess the Greek religion, their curates are permitted to marry, but being worse paid than the other ecclesiastics, and having besides to maintain a family, many are obliged, like St. Paul, to labour with their own hands. Their preaching is not in vain, their precepts are enforced by the example of an industrious and well-spent life. The churches are not widely different from those in the Catholic villages; three bells of different dimensions are suspended from each of them, and the simple inhabitants thus indicate the three persons in the Trinity, it is probable too that they do not believe in their equality, for the large bell is said to be in honour of God the Father, God the Son is represented by the second, and the third is emblematical of the Holy Ghost. Such is the explanation I obtained from the people themselves." Churches.

The inhabitants of Pokutia have mixed less with the Poles than the other Rousniacks. The *Houcoles* or shepherds on the Carpathian mountains retain many barbarous customs, which have hitherto been imperfectly observed. Houcoules.

Gallicia, like the whole of Poland, remained long in a state of barbarism, the consequence of civil discord and Turkish or Cossack invasions. Devastated towns and villages in ruins, are the monuments of former wars. The traveller is apt to imagine himself beyond the limits of Europe, he is nowhere sure of a bed, and is every where exposed to great privations. The beer in the country is a sort of turbid vinegar, the wine is perhaps as sour, and a glass of it cannot be purchased for less than a florin. The stranger may quench his thirst at the limpid and cold springs on the mountains, but bread is not to be had in the high districts, and the only articles that can be procured, are oaten cakes mixed with chaff, and ardent spirits, the poison of the Poles. Many go out of their way to gain a town, but they are not certain of being admitted into an inn, and those may consider themselves fortunate, who are allowed to dress their own victuals, or to purchase a few eggs for ten times their value. State of the country.

The country has been improved under the Austrian German colonies.

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government, and since the settlement of the German colonists, who now amount to 72,000 individuals. Civilization has thus been advanced, but there are still many obstacles, which cannot be easily overcome. The peasants are ignorant and slothful, slavery seems to deprive them of intelligence and courage. All the land in the country is possessed by the nobility and a few free labourers. The wealthy lords are the proprietors of more extensive domains than many German principalities, but those to whom the care of their estates is committed, are for the most part men of broken fortunes, who have been forced to fly from Germany or Bohemia. The stewards rob their masters so effectually that they are enabled in the course of a few years to give up their office, or to purchase the lands which they formerly managed. Some princes and nobles are not deceived by these strangers, but they let their land to farmers, who exhaust the soil by raising from it in two years, what ought not to have been produced in a period of ten.

Peasantry.

Nobles.

The poorer nobles cultivate their own farms, and are perhaps as industrious as any class of men in Gallicia, but they are ill educated and ignorant of rural economy. Want of foresight or a desire of gain often tempts them to sacrifice the future to the present; forced harvests are reaped, and the ground remains long unproductive. The habits and patriarchal manners of the poor nobles may entitle them to respect, but otherwise, the only difference between the master and the peasant consists in the right of property which the one possesses over the person of the other. Such men are not likely to benefit their country, the wretched state of Gallicia is owing to the ignorance of the inhabitants, hands enough are not wanting to labour the fields. It unfortunately happens that the clergy are as bigoted and superstitious as any in Europe; to enlighten the curates is a hopeless task. The royal domains have been long ill cultivated; a better system is now introduced, and it is to be hoped that it may extend to other parts of the province. The Austrian ministers

may in time learn wisdom from experience; though anxious to promote the happiness of the people, they fear innovation, every foreign improvement, in short, whatever is not German. To perfect the work that is already begun, it might be necessary to improve and extend the system of education, to strengthen and develop the national institutions.

Progress of industry.

Considerable progress has been made in the different arts; linen is manufactured on the mountains and the Silesian frontiers; greater attention is now paid to the fineness of the cloth; though formerly coarse, it was of a good quality. The different woollen goods form another important branch, and the art of dyeing cotton is as well understood at Nawsie as in the Levant. Glass is exported from Lubaczow and other places; fifty forges have been erected in the neighbourhood of Wielizka, the iron is well wrought, and the same sort of industry is diffused in the high districts. The arts of dressing leather, whitening wax, distilling spirits, and making nitre and potashes, are sources of wealth in different towns. The exports are conveyed by the commercial road, the work of Joseph the Second, and one of immense value to the province. The Gallician nobles spend their money at home, few repair to the court at Vienna, or travel in foreign countries.

Exports.

The exports of Gallicia and Bukowine are principally consumed in Austria and Moravia; they amount to twenty millions of florins, and consist mostly of salt, grain, cattle, horses, raw and dressed hides, wool, wax, tallow, tobacco and lint.

Military force.

The total population of the province is not less than 3,800,000, and it furnishes recruits to eleven regiments of infantry, four of light cavalry, and a battalion of fusiliers.

Revenue.

The maintenance of these troops is a great burden to the country, for the revenue seldom exceeds 10,000,000 imperial florins, (L.1,042,000) and it is always inadequate to the expenditure. Gallicia might surpass most states in industry and wealth; commerce is free, the taxes are moderate, and nature is lavish of her gifts. But the outlets for the redundant produce have been diminished

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since Prussia obtained the navigation of the Vistula, and the progress of civilization is retarded by the degraded state of the peasants, and the influence of Jewish usurers in almost all the towns.

Bukowine.

Bukowine is united to Gallicia under the official name of the *circle of Czernowitz*, but its provincial states are distinct, and its population is very different. It may be inferred from its name, which signifies the country of beech trees, that the climate is not the same.

Climate, produce.

The picturesque sides of the Carpathians are covered with forests of beech, pine and fir trees; the vine grows on the low ground, and the vallies watered by the *Moldava*, the *Sereth* and the *Pruth* are fertile in fruit, pasturage and corn. Numerous salt springs, the gold carried down the Bistritza, lead mixed with silver, the copper of Poschoryta, and the iron of Iakobeny are the mineral riches of the country.

Towns.

Suczawa, once the residence of the Moldavian despots, and a town of 80,000 inhabitants in the 15th century, is not at present peopled by more than 5000. *Czernowitz* and *Sereth* are equally insignificant.

Inhabitants.

The population of Bukowine amounts to 200,000 individuals, and most of them are *Moldovenis*, a branch of the Wallachians, members of the Greek church, and subject to the authority of their *boyars* or lords. German, Armenian, Jewish and even Magyar colonists are settled in the province. The *Philliponi* or *Lippowany* adhere to the ancient rites of the Russian church, but their ceremonies and tenets are imperfectly known. Harassed by the Tartars and the Russians, they were forced to leave the Crimea, and to implore the protection of Joseph the Second. The emperor granted them an asylum, and the people were soon distinguished by their probity, frugality and peaceful lives.

Historical details.

Bukowine was the ancient country of the Moldavians. A Polish army of 80,000 men having besieged Suczawa in 1496, was repulsed and wholly defeated by the troops of the hospodar Stephen the Great. Twenty thousand nobles were taken prisoners, the conqueror bound some to the plough, and compelled others to plant beech trees on the field of battle. The beech is called the bloody wood by

the Wallachians, who believe that the Saviour's cross was made of it, and the Turks, probably for the same reason, use it in empaling their victims; hence the word Bukowine may also mean the land of blood. When the Austrians had invaded or retaken Gallicia, an able report was written by a superior officer, conformably to the instructions of Joseph the Second. It results from the document, "that the possession of Bukowine is necessary to protect the Austrian provinces, which front Poland and Muscovy. The same country forms a line of military communication between Gallicia and Transylvania, the advanced bulwark of the empire, and gives Austria the command of the most advantageous positions, in the event of a war with the Turk or the Muscovite."[a] The above reasoning is correct, and the Austrians determined to keep the province which they had already conquered. The Turks consented to the occupation, because they expected the assistance of the emperor in the war against the Russians. The hospodar Ghika protested solemnly against the dismemberment of Moldavia, but the next day he was secretly beheaded, an event that revealed the policy of the Porte.

The principal divisions of former Poland, according to their actual names, have now been described. The great dutchy of Posen shall be more fully mentioned in another part of the work; it is too much connected with Prussia, (even in a geographical point of view,) to be included in the present chapter.

Polish language.

The Polish language is sprung from the Russian, the Bohemian, the Wend and Slavonic dialects of Illyria; but it resembles the Bohemian perhaps more than any other, and both are distinguished by harsh sounds and crowded consonants. The Polish, however, is not incompatible with harmony, but the difficulty of the pronunciation cannot be easily overcome by strangers; it is harmonious, when spoken by the natives, nay more, an imaginative writer has compared the conversation of Polish ladies to

[a] See Schlœtzer, Staats-anzeigen, I. p. 38—59.

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the warbling of birds. The sonorous majesty of the Russian is more adapted for music, but the Polish is rich in grammatical forms, figures and inversions, and well fitted for every sort of style. Long neglected or rather superseded by the Latin, no attention was bestowed on it, but it has in later times become the language of poets, orators and fearless historians. The different dialects have not yet been distinguished with sufficient care. The Mazurake is said to abound in Lithuanian words, but it is probable that these words were used by the ancient Poles. The dialect of the Gorales is very harsh, it may perhaps be more closely connected with the Bohemian. The Upper Silesian and the dialect spoken by the Cassubes in Pomerania are branches of the Polish. Little is known concerning the transition from the same language to the Russian, in the eastern districts of Gallicia.

Origin of the Poles.

The mass of the Polish nation is descended from the ancient Leches, the same people as the Lygians of Tacitus, and the Licicavians of the middle ages. But the warlike and adventurous colonies of the Goths, particularly the Western or Visi-Goths, were settled at an early period on the banks of the Vistula; and formed perhaps in many places the dominant race. The clear complexion and the regular features of the Polish nobles seem to strengthen the supposition, which is almost confirmed by the title of the nobles, a title that is unknown in every other Slavonic language. The *szluchics* were partly composed of foreign conquerors, and identified in the course of ages with the native aristocracy, the *zemianin* or possessors of land.[b] It may be concluded from the nature of the population that many revolutions must have taken place in the country, that many warriors, such as *Krakus*, must have appeared among the Gothic hordes, before the shepherds and husbandmen chose *Piastus* for their king. The dates are not

Szlachics.

[b] *Szlachcic* is pronounced *schlagh-tchitch*; it is nearly synonymous with the French word *gentilhomme*, which differs from gentleman, in as much as it is only applied to nobles; the same term corresponds with the *shlatic* and *schlatic* of the German writers in the tenth century. *Linde's* Polish Dictionary.

preserved, but the history ought not for that reason to be considered fabulous, it is unfortunately too true, the appendage of dates is disregarded by barbarous tribes. The monuments of national worship, monuments that serve to illustrate the character of nations, have been lost in the chaos of revolutions. Gnesne, Cracow and Wilna are called sacred towns, but it is impossible to derive information from so vague a term, and no distinct attribute is attached to any of them. Peroun himself, the great Slavonic god, held no distinguished rank in the Polish mythology. Biel-Bog and Czernobog were adored by the Sorabes and Silesians, it cannot be affirmed that they were worshipped by the other Poles. *Iess*, says the historian Dlugoss, was the god of thunder; his name is certainly connected with others in the Celtic and Etruscan. *Dziewanna*, the goddess of life and youth, *Liada*, the god of war, *Lelo*, *Polelo* and many other Polish divinities are distinguished by their Slavonic names. *Nia*, the god of death and the abyss, who was worshipped by the people at Niamts in Silesia, and probably at Niemts in Moldavia, was feared by the eastern Slavonians. More distinct traces are left of the worship of the Wends or Slavi on the Baltic; their rich temples, numerous idols and less barbarous notions were ill adapted for the tribes in the interior of the continent. History preserves with capricious care, not the names of the great divinities, but those of all the *Zemopaci* or earthly spirits from the god of cherries and nuts, to the god that kindles and extinguishes the fire. Many of their names were derived from the ancient Lithuanian or some Slavonic dialect anterior to the Polish. The horde of gods that peopled the houses from the cellar to the dormitory, seem to have formed a part of a very early superstition in the north and east of Europe. Was the Polish mythology composed of several others? It might be rash to arrive at any conclusion, until the worship and its relation to other creeds be more fully examined; the boldest system-makers have been wise enough to suspend their judgment on the subject.

National divinities.

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Discussion on the Sarmatians.

One important truth may be established, a truth of which several historical writers appear to have been ignorant. The Sarmatians were not the ancestors of the Poles. The former were conquering tribes that invaded Scythia or southern Russia, a great portion of the Ukraine, Gallicia and Moldavia, and governed these countries nearly three centuries. The natives were not expelled, but the victors, like the Turks, changed the names of the vanquished and tributary states. The first Sarmatians mentioned in history were sprung, according to Herodotus, "from young Scythians and Amazons or warlike women."[c] Whether that origin be fabulous or not, the father of history considered the Sarmatians, Scythian colonists, who inhabited the country on the east of the Tanais, perhaps between the lower Wolga and Caucasus, who spoke a Scythian dialect, corrupted by the language of their mothers, and retained several remarkable customs, among others, that of being accompanied in battle by women armed with two-edged axes. Hippocrates, a co-temporary of Herodotus, supposed the Sarmatians, a Scythian people that differed from the other Scythians, for their women used the bow and the javelin; but in other respects, his account of the Scythians is applicable to the Sarmatians. "The people are swarthy, short and fat, of a relaxed and phlegmatic temperament; the women are not fruitful, but their slaves being lean give birth to many children."[d] The Greeks were struck with their small and lively eyes, and compared them to those of lizards; hence the incorrect etymology of their name, which was corrupted into *Sauromates*. The Roman authors had better opportunities of observing the nation, and they rejected the Greek derivation.[e] The names of several Sarmatian tribes, as the *Thisomatæ*, *Iaxomatæ* and others, are distinguished by the same final syllables. It is almost certain

[c] Herod. IV. c. CX—CXVII.

[d] Hippocrates, de Aeribus, &c.

[e] Dionysius Periegetes calls them the *Sarmatæ*.

that these syllables had a common signification, and the meaning of *Madai*, Medes or men, is so obvious and occurs so frequently in the ancient languages of Media and Persia, that it can hardly fail of being admitted. The hypothesis accords well with the opinion of the ancients, who considered the Scythians and Sarmatians, a Median people. It has been seen in a former part of this work, that the Scythian words, which have been preserved, belonged perhaps to the Zend or to a dialect connected with it. The people subject to the empire of the Scythians, or exposed to their devastations, some of whom purchased protection by paying tribute, were the Slavonians and the Finns. It is comparatively of little consequence that they were then unknown in history by their present names.

Origin of the name.

A great revolution took place; Mithridates, the Asiatic Hannibal, formed the ambitious project of penetrating into Italy by the north-east, a project which was accomplished at a later period by the Cimbrian and Gothic nations.[f] The general excited the Sarmatians to cross the Tanais, and to overturn the Scythian empire. Their migrations commenced about the year 81 before the vulgar era, and were continued upwards of a century. The Sarmatians overran, laid waste and partly conquered all the countries bounded by a line drawn from the Tanais to the Transylvanian mountains, and by another line extending also from the Tanais, and terminating near the embouchure of the Vistula. Pliny alludes to these invasions, he says that "the Scythians have disappeared, their country is now inhabited by Germans and Sarmatians." It is difficult to imagine how compilers of history and geography could believe the Sarmatians, "a swarthy race, an unfruitful people," occupied the immense space which Sarmatia covers on the ancient maps. As well may the names of Russia, Turkey and former Poland be considered the boundaries of distinct people, while they mark only the

Sarmatian migrations.

[f] Bayer, Conversiones Rerum Scythicarum, Memoirs of the Academy at Petersburg. Diodorus Siculus, lib. II. c. XLIII. p. 156. Edit. Wessel.

BOOK CXIV.

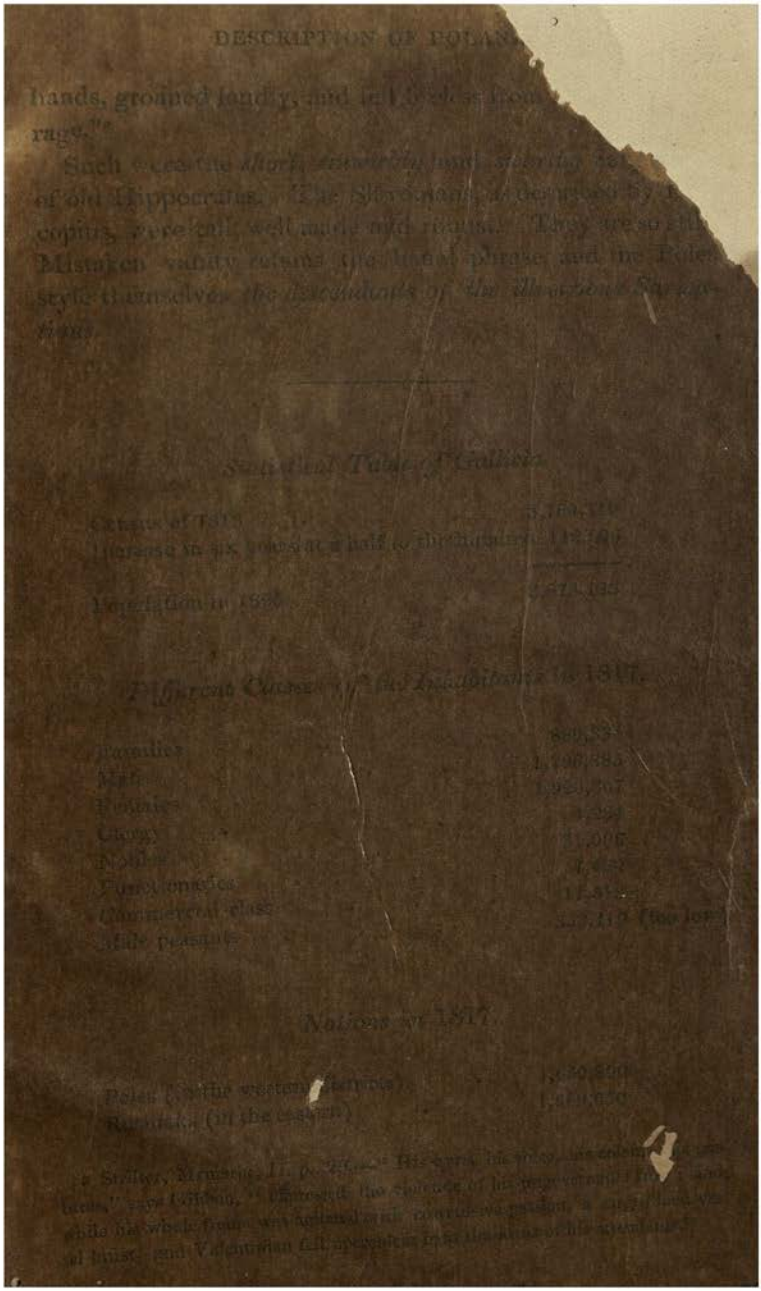
limits of empires. Is the Greek a Turk, the [illegible] Austrian, the Finn a Russian, or the Basque a [illegible] man, were the Italians, Goths under Theodoric [illegible] swer to these questions is not doubtful. In li[illegible] the Slavonic people between the Oder and the [illegible] the *Lygii* in the plains, the *Mugilones* on the [illegible] *Navarhales* in the marshy lands, the *Carpi*, [illegible] other tribes on the Carpathians, the *Venedes* o[illegible] in Prussia and Lithuania, the *Fenni* in Polesia a[illegible] Russia, the other Finnic hordes in central Russia, [illegible] their national existence, the[illegible] guage and cus[illegible] though they became for a time the subjects o[illegible] tians.

Extinction of the Sarmatians.

Had the Sarmatian empire a centre or principle [illegible] or was it composed of independent *khanats*, fe[illegible] nected with each other? What provinces became [illegible] try of the Sarmatian colonists? When were the[illegible] confounded with the populous and continually i[illegible] Slavonians, the fair people, the race indigenous to [illegible] What share had the Goths in the later revolution [illegible] was the fate of the Sarmatians that migrated afte[illegible] struction of their empire, and were protected by [illegible] mans? Additional information may be derived [illegible] consideration of these questions; but it ought fir[illegible] shewn that the Sarmatians were a conquering tr[illegible] tinct from the inhabitants of the countries ove[illegible] they ruled.

Sarmatians of the fourth century.

It is thus that they are represented in history at [illegible] of the Pannonian invasion, about the year 375. [illegible] Sarmatians conquered by the Roman general [illegible] were forced to implore the clemency of the emp[illegible] tinian. The deputies were presented before him [illegible] heard them, and asked indignantly why better [illegible] had not been sent. The ambassadors answere[illegible] were selected from the chosen men of their n[illegible] unfortunate Rome, exclaimed Valentinian, whe[illegible] tions dare invade it!" At the same time, h[illegible]



Statistical Table of Gallicia continued.

Wallachians	182,000
Jews	204,000
Germans	79,000
Philippones	8,800
Armenians	3,000
Zingares	9,000
Greeks	550

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